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MANUAL

OF

MUTUAL INSTRUCTION;

CONSISTING OF

MR. FOWLE'S DIRECTIONS

OR INTRODUCING IN COMMON SCHOOLS THE IMPROVED SYSTEM
ADOPTED IN THE MONITORIAL SCHOOL, BOSTON.

WITH

AN APPENDIX,

CONTAINING SOME CONSIDERATIONS IN FAVOR OF THE MONITORIAL
METHOD, AND A SKETCH OF ITS PROGRESS,

EMBRACING

A VIEW OF ITS ADAPTATION TO INSTRUCTION IN ACADEMIES,
PREPARATORY SEMINARIES, AND COLLEGES.

BY WILLIAM RUSSELL,

Editor of the American Journal of Education.

Boston :

PUBLISHED BY WAIT, GREENE, AND COMPANY.

1826.



DISTRICT OF MASSACHUSETTS, TO WIT:

DISTRICT CLERK'S OFFICE.

Be it Remembered, 'that on the twenty-fifth day of September, A. D. 1826, in the fifty-first year of the Independence of the United States of America, WILLIAM RUSSELL, of the said District, has deposited in this office, the title of a book, the right whereof he claims as Author, in the words following to wit:

“Manual of Mutual Instruction; consisting of Mr. Fowle’s Directions for introducing in common schools the improved system adopted in the Monitorial School, Boston, with an Appendix, containing some considerations in favor of the Monitorial method, and a sketch of its progress, embracing a view of its adaptation to instruction in academies, preparatory seminaries, and colleges. By *William Russell*, Editor of the *American Journal of Education*.”

In conformity to the act of the Congress of the United States, entitled, "An act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts, and books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned ; and also to an act entitled, "An act, supplementary to an act, entitled, an act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts, and books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned ; and extending the benefits thereof to the arts of designing, engraving and etching historical and other prints."

JOHN W. DAVIS, } Clerk of the District
of Massachusetts.

ADVERTISEMENT.

REPEATED calls having been made at the office of the Journal of Education, for information concerning the system of mutual instruction, and for works calculated to assist teachers in introducing it, the following volume has been compiled with a view to suit these purposes. Mr. Fowle's directions to instructors of common schools, have received the principal place in this Manual, as seemed due not less to their own practical importance, than to the particular stage of education to which they apply. In the Appendix, the application of monitorial instruction to higher schools and to higher branches, has been exhibited in extracts from several recent publications, and other sources of intelligence.

A larger volume, with a more systematic arrangement, might have done more justice to the theory of mutual instruction.— But the present publication will, it is hoped, be found sufficiently copious in facts and details, to aid the progress of practical improvement.

The part of this Manual which applies to the introduction of the monitorial method in Colleges, is respectfully submitted to instructors in such institutions, as a means of aiding their exertions ; and, at the same time, of employing and gratifying, as well as of improving, the minds of students. Patient experiment, however, can alone lead to an ultimate decision on the merits of the new system, with reference to college instruction in this country ; and the plan is merely submitted as deserving of a trial. The question to be answered is, at the same time, an important one ; and if, in the higher seminaries of learning the benefits derived from the new system, are found to correspond with those obtained in schools and academies, a more rapid and general advance to a highly improved state of education will certainly be the happy result.

Boston, Oct. 1826.

CONTENTS.

DIRECTIONS :

Introductory observations,	3
Defects of common school rooms,	4
Proper form of a school room,	6
Books, &c. for a monitorial school,	10
Manner of opening a school,	12
Classification,	13
Order of exercises,	16
Miscellaneous directions,	23
System of rewards and punishments,	27
Objection to noise in monitorial schools,	31
Advice to school committees,	32

APPENDIX :

General advantages of the monitorial system,	35
Sketch of the progress of the system,	44
Primary schools of Holland,	53
Monitorial schools in Great Britain,	63
Monitorial schools in the United States,	70
“ “ New-York,	<i>ib</i>
“ “ Boston,	74
“ “ “ Mr. Fowle's school,	76
“ “ “ High school for girls,	88
“ “ “ Mr. Price's school,	97
Lancasterian school, New-Haven,	101
“ “ Albany,	104
Mutual instruction in Colleges,	107

MANUAL OF MONITORIAL INSTRUCTION.

AFTER the favorable reception which the system of mutual instruction has of late experienced, and the solid arguments in favor of its utility deduced from successful experiments made in our own country, and under our own observation, a formal defence of it cannot be necessary. The public in general are satisfied; they do not want proofs of the utility of the system, so much as plain directions to enable them to put it in practice.

The directions given in the following manual are founded upon a knowledge of all the improvements which have been made upon the new system since its first promulgation, and the experience of several years in the instruction of elementary and other schools; upon, it is believed,

a competent knowledge, of the system hitherto pursued in New-England ; and a rigid regard for *economy*, a consideration of too much weight in most of the school districts in our country towns. Our manual is intended for public schools, where spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, and geography only are taught, and *is equally applicable to small schools of thirty, or large ones of three hundred or more.*

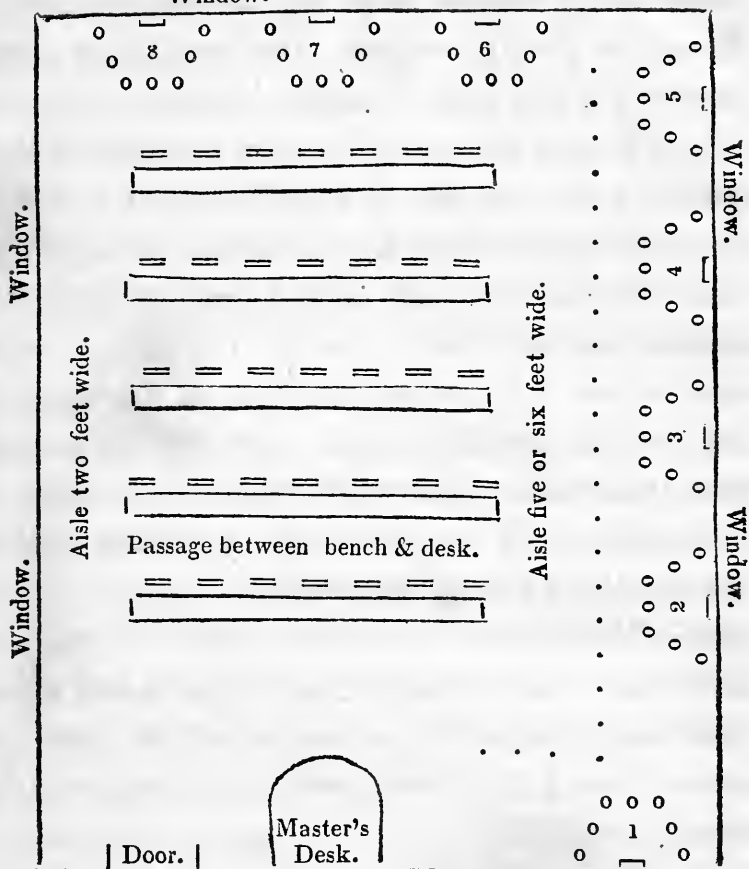
Mutual instruction was first introduced to save the expense of teachers in large schools ; but experience has discovered in it a far greater benefit, which is, the more thorough and practical education acquired by those children who are required to *teach* as well as learn ; and, in a well ordered school on the monitorial plan, *every* child before he leaves the school is employed as a teacher. In schools, therefore, of only twenty or thirty scholars, although the master may feel perfectly competent to teach them all personally, still it is desirable that they should learn the use of his instructions by transmitting them to the younger scholars.

It is to be regretted that in our common school rooms so little regard has been paid to the convenience of the master and pupils. The bench

of one desk is generally fastened to the front of the next desk, so as to allow no passage behind the scholar, and to oblige him to disturb the whole row when he wishes to leave his seat. This arrangement also effectually prevents the writing master from passing between the desks to examine the books of the writers. Another fault of construction in our school rooms is, that the forms or desks do not all face the master's desk. This prevents his having a commanding view of the whole, and the scholars having a convenient view of him, and what he wishes to show them; besides, it enables the children to look at each other, a serious evil, were one sex only present, but much more serious, when, as in most of our country schools, both sexes are in the same room, and placed opposite to each other. These are the two greatest defects in the construction of our school rooms, and it is desirable that they should be remedied before the new system is introduced,—but let it be understood, that the new system may be tried in a room of any construction, although its advantages cannot be so fully appreciated as when the room is more conveniently arranged.

A parallelogram, or oblong square, is the best form for a school room; the instructor's desk should be at the end nearest the door, that he may see who enters or goes out, and that visitors, when they first enter, may see the *faces* of all the scholars, as will be the case, if the desks cross the room in front of the master's desk. It is necessary to have a broad aisle of five or six feet on one side of the school, in which the classes may form semicircles around their monitors, who stand or sit with their backs to the wall.

The annexed diagram will give some idea of the most simple and convenient form of a school room; and school committees who are about to erect new school houses, may be assured that the arrangement we propose will be found as convenient for the *old* system of instruction, as for the *new*, besides the economy of room, which will be evident.



1. The semicircles as they are called, are not perfectly so, for it is found that the shape here given takes up less room and is more convenient for the class. These are the reciting stations, in the centre of which is a seat for the

monitor. This seat may be a permanent one, a desk, or a chair; or the monitor may be required to stand, which is the preferable mode.

2. There should be about eighteen inches between the ends of the semicircles, so that children standing at each may not touch one another.

3. From the wall to the front of the semicircles may be about four feet; and then there must be room between the front of the semicircles and the desks, to allow of a person's passing down the aisle, while the children are standing at the stations. Two feet will be sufficient, thus making the aisle six feet wide.

4. The master's desk had better be semicircular, that classes may form around it and recite to him. It should be elevated about eighteen inches above the floor, and have two circular steps around it.

5. The narrow aisle on the left side of the school will be found convenient, but may be dispensed with if the other aisle is a wide one.

6. The nearest form should be about four feet from the master's desk. The seats for the scholars may be separate stools, nailed to the floor, or single benches strongly made and fasten-

ed. The desk should have a shelf under it, to hold the slate and books of the children.

7. Between the seats and the front of the next row, should be a passage way of fifteen or twenty inches width, that master and monitors may pass freely behind the scholars.

8. The reading stations, 6, 7, and 8, behind the desks, may be dispensed with, if there are enough elsewhere, and, in winter, one or two may be made by the door. These stations are marked by grooves in the floor cut or scratched. Paint is sometimes used but is soon effaced.

9. The desks nearest the master's should be somewhat lower than the others, to suit the smallest children. In arranging the relative height of the seats and desks or forms, the best plan is to set a child upon the seat, and place the form *just high enough for him to write and keep his elbow at his side*. Always recollect that it had better be too low than too high.

Such is the arrangement we should propose, and a judicious teacher will come as near to it as circumstances will allow. He may adopt the whole, or a part, or none ; for it is possible to do without reading stations ; the monitor sitting at

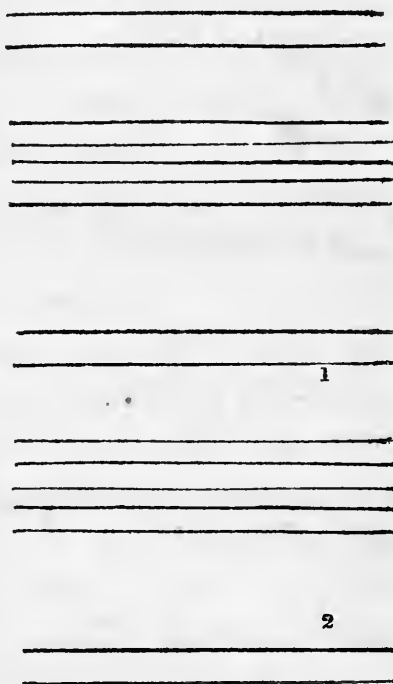
the end of a bench, and the children standing in a semicircle around him. It is better however for the classes to read towards the wall than towards the centre of the room, for less noise is made, and there is less to distract the attention.

In European schools, and in some in our own country, where the poor are chiefly taught, the children read from sheets printed in very large type, and hung against the wall, over the monitor's seat. The class can all see the sheet, and read from it. After a class has read one sheet, they exchange sheets with another class; and thus one set of sheets, or *cards*, as they are called, will suffice for a large school. There are, however, many disadvantages attending the use of these cards, and as the selections on them are very inferior to the books generally used in our schools; and, moreover, as our villages contain few parents so poor that they cannot procure the necessary books, we should recommend the use of books to the exclusion of cards. The books may however, be public property, under the care of the master, and perhaps in many cases this would prevent the inconvenience arising from the want of books, or of uniformities in them.

Each child *must* have a slate, which should be ruled after the following pattern.

The *five* lines are for the body of the letter, the middle one to show where most letters join. The *inner* of the *two* lines mark the length of stems not looped, and the outer lines the length of those looped. Three such lines, or assemblages of lines, may be put on one side of a common slate: the other side is kept unruled.

As every master has his own mode of teaching writing, he can rule the slate to suit himself, if he does not like our plan. Books ruled on this plan may be purchased at the bookstore of Mr. Josiah Loring, Boston.



No other apparatus will be needed except a small bell or whistle, and a board about four feet by three, and painted black. This is placed over the master's desk, or wherever the scholars can see it best, and letters, words or sums, diagrams, &c., are written on it with chalk. The board must be well painted, and chalk of the best

quality, free from particles of flint, should be used, that the board may not be scratched.

In such schools as can afford it, we should also recommend another long board painted black, and ruled with white or red lines like the slates, with a great and small alphabet painted on it; the length and proportions of the letters being carefully preserved, that the child may always have a copy to appeal to, when in doubt about the form of a letter.

In offering directions for a change of systems in our common schools, we shall suppose some one employed to teach a school of this sort, and shall give him the necessary directions.

Before the day appointed for opening the school, let it be known that each child is expected to bring his last writing book, ciphering book, and all the other books he has used the previous season. This will assist in classing the scholars, which is the first important step.

When the children are all assembled, write their names on a sheet of paper to be afterwards copied *alphabetically* on the *class lists*, which will be hereafter described.

Let the children all stand in one or two lines, and read from the same book. As they read place them higher or lower as they compare with the others. After they have read round once, let them do so again, that your judgement may be corrected or confirmed. Then take the head readers for monitors, and their number must depend upon the number of scholars. One hundred scholars will need about twelve monitors. After you have taken these, let the eight next highest readers form the highest class; the eight next, the next class; and so down. Let the *lowest* class be called the *first*. Then let these classes form around the stations, and assign a particular class to each monitor.

Much difficulty will be experienced from the diversity of books found in every school; and it is to be lamented that parents are so unwilling to purchase a new book, however improved, while any book, however antiquated and unsuitable, is already owned. This embarrasses the teacher and retards the progress of the pupils. We shall point out such books as are suitable, and earnestly recommend it to school committees, to see that every child is supplied with them.

We do not say that the system we advocate cannot struggle with the evil complained of, as well as the old system can; but we love uniformity, and are unwilling to dig our garden with a *hoe*, when for a trifle we can purchase a *spade*.

Having classed the *readers*, the next thing is to class the *writers*. Let each scholar write three words on his slate; each writing the same words that they may be more easily compared. Select the best writers, say as many as you have forms, for monitors of writing on the slate, and, if possible, let these *slate monitors* not be the same children you have selected for *reading monitors*. Then divide the children into classes, which may consist of as many as sit at one form, if the school be numerous. Let the best writers occupy the forms farthest from the master's desk, and the beginners will then occupy the lower desks.

Having classed the *writers*, arrange all the scholars, and give a fair trial at *spelling*. Let one or two of the best writers take down the names of the scholars, and mark each scholar that spells incorrectly. Let those who err go below those who spell the word right. After spelling round

ten or fifteen times, let those who have made no error, (as will appear on the slate,) take the head, those who have made only one go next, and so down to those who erred the most. As there will be several who failed in the same number of words, precedence must be given to those who stood the highest when they left off spelling, and this is the chief object of letting them go up and down, when a record is kept on the slate also. Now begin at the *foot* and mark off eight for the first class, then the next eight for the second, and so on until only enough are left for monitors of these classes. Then let the monitors, beginning at the highest, choose a class; until each class has a monitor.

Let each, with slate in hand, stand up for examination in *arithmetic*. Such as have never ciphered may be classed according to ages; but such as have ciphered, must first be tried in numeration, then addition, subtraction, &c. and as fast as any fail to do the sum, mark them off for a class. Take the best for monitors, and then yourself teach these monitors numeration thoroughly; and let them teach the same to their classes. Require all to *begin at the beginning*,

that they may review what they are supposed to know ; and let none advance until thoroughly acquainted with a rule.

As but a small proportion will have studied *grammar* and *geography*, there will probably be but one class, and this you must teach yourself. But you will soon permit others to commence the study of these branches, that your class may be exercised in teaching them.

As directions for their use are given in the *grammar* and *geography* we shall hereafter propose, we need only remark here that when more branches are taught, less time must be allowed for each branch ; or *geography* may be studied one day, or one week, and *grammar* the next week. This arrangement can be made by the teacher.

Supposing the school to open at 9, and continue till 12, A. M. and then to open at 2, and continue till 4 in the afternoon, the following may be the order of exercises until experience teaches a better.

At nine A. M. ring the little *bell* as a signal for every child to take his seat. Call the *roll* and give each child present a *merit mark* for *punctuality*. The nature of this merit mark will be

hereafter explained, though not so fully as in the second number of the Journal of Education.— [pp. 72, 73.]

9 $\frac{1}{4}$. Order monitors of *reading* to their *stations*, then direct the classes to form around them, in perfect silence, with hands behind. Give a *signal* for the head of each class to begin to read *at once*. Whilst the classes are reading to the monitors the master goes round and hears each class a little, or hears a different class each day, keeping a vigilant eye upon the whole school.

5m. before 10. Ring the bell for all to *stop*, and require all to do so *instantly*, even if a word be half pronounced. Let them then form a line in front of their reading stations, (where the dotted line is in our diagram.) Then take the *class* list, and, beginning with the highest class, give a *merit* to such as their monitors say deserve one, and so on to the lowest class. In very large schools it would take too long to call the roll in this way; the monitor, therefore, must be required to keep a little list of his own class, and mark the merits himself upon it, transferring them once a week to the general list kept by the master. Then order the classes—highest first—to walk

lightly, with hands behind, to their *seats*. It is better that they stand behind their seats until the signal is given to sit all together. All this may as well be done in five minutes as in fifty.

10 o'clock. Call the monitors of *reading* around your desk, *to read to you*. Then order monitors of *slate writing* to their stations at the head or end of each form. Let an intelligent monitor, with a clear voice, called the *monitor of dictation*, say, '*Take slates.*' Each child lays his slate before him—'*Clean slates.*' Each child rubs until the bell sounds for all to stop together, and put their hands behind at the same instant.

In some schools on this plan the slate is immoveably fixed in the form, in others there is a place into which it fits but is not fixed. We think it better to dispense with the former plan that the children may be able to carry their slates out to their ciphering stations, and with the latter that the surface of the form may not be uneven when they write on paper—and with both, that the children may sit nearer each other than the fixed slates will allow, in case the school is crowded.

It should be recollected that the children have all been classed in writing, but do not sit according to that classification. It is necessary, therefore, that they leave their seats to be classed. To do this, the monitor of dictation says, '*Ready!*' then, '*Rise!*' '*Walk!*' Let them follow the head of the class to the side of school room across the broad aisle, and remain in single file, and turn round. Then let the highest row file off to their writing stations and the rest follow. It takes some time to describe this movement; but two minutes are sufficient to execute it. The monitor of dictation will keep order, while the classes are writing; but if the school be very large he may have a colleague called monitor of *order*. After the slates are filled with words, (three long words or six short ones,) the monitor of dictation orders the slate monitors to examine slates. They do this, marking errors in spelling, badly formed letters, &c. These monitors should have their own slates also, and write the words which their classes write; and before they are directed to examine their classes, they may show their own slates to the monitor of dictation. This is a salutary check upon the monitors; but if they

are not required to write themselves, they should keep behind their classes all the time, instructing and correcting them.

When they write on the slate, let such as are capable write *the same word*, which must be one in the regular *spelling lesson*. The little children who cannot write whole words, must write letters, or parts of letters, and their monitor must set them copies until they can write from dictation. Every child must write something, and of course must have a slate and pencil.

The monitor of dictation goes to the highest class, and spells very distinctly the word they are to write. He then goes to the next class and gives them a word from their lesson, and so down to the classes which are unable to write words.

10 $\frac{1}{2}$. Send off your class of *reading* monitors. Ring the bell for writing to cease. Give the word ‘ready!—rise!—walk!’ and then let them file off to their seats, as before writing. They should however have a *merit*, if they have written well and correctly; and you may mark them by calling each name, or let the monitors do it on small lists.

10 h. 35 m. Ring the bell for *spelling* monitors to go to their stations. Say, 'ready! rise! lead off, highest first, to spelling stations!' While the classes are spelling to you, you will hear the monitors of *arithmetic* recite, or inspect their work. If you are unwilling to take them from their spelling, you may take some other half hour less inconvenient.

11 o'clock. Ring for *silence*. Mark *merits*. Lead off from the head of the highest class.

11 and 5 minutes. Hear the *grammar* class yourself, Monday, Wednesday, and Friday—or that in *geography* Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday. The rest of the school may be employed in copying a word written on the board, or in saying the multiplication tables, &c., after a monitor, altogether, or finally, in spelling altogether, but in a low voice, the words of the day's lesson. By all means require them to do something.

11½. The classification for writing on the slate, will not always do for paper also. Therefore, after you have examined their former writing books, and selected your monitors for writing on *paper*, let them proceed—'ready!—rise!—walk!' as they did *before* writing on the slate,

and then file off to the new seats. Then let the monitors give the books and pens of their classes to them.

It is well to have *two sets of monitors*, that one set may be on duty a week, and the other relieve them next week. Then you may teach the class of monitors not on duty, and oversee the whole school, particularly the lower scholars, who do not write on paper, and may be employed on the slate.

If there are not good writers enough for two sets of monitors, and you have but one set, you must contrive to let them write a little while between or during some of the other exercises. But this is not very important, because they have practice in setting copies for their classes, which duty may be performed in the recess between schools, or at some spare moment in school time. Monitors seldom need to be told when to do this, for they easily find an opportunity themselves.

12 o'clock. Make each child show his *copy* to you, and give him a merit or demerit as he deserves. Dismiss as fast as you examine.

AFTERNOON.

2 o'clock. Call to *order*. Mark for *punctuality* as in the morning.

$2\frac{1}{4}$. Order out for *reading*, as in the morning. Mark merits, &c.

$2\frac{3}{4}$. Order writing on *slate*, as in the morning. Hear monitors of *reading* or *arithmetic* yourself.

$3\frac{1}{4}$. Order monitors of *arithmetic* to stations. Order arithmetic classes to their monitors. Let them recite *intellectual* arithmetic one day, and practice on their *slates* the next.

4 o'clock. Mark merits and dismiss.

This order of exercises may look formidable, but the teacher is assured that he will understand the routine of the whole business thoroughly in a day or two, and so will the children. It will be necessary, now to give a few miscellaneous directions, which could not conveniently be inserted elsewhere.

In *reading*, let any child who can correct another go above him. But as their anxiety to correct will produce confusion unless regulated, let each who notices a mistake hold up his hand, but not speak until the monitor tells him. The

monitor must let the nearest to the reader speak first; but no one must speak who did not hold up his hand. If any one *mis-correct*, he must go down one, for interrupting the reader.

In *writing*, whether on the slates or paper, oblige every child to begin with single letters: the younger scholars because they must learn them of course; and the older scholars because they cannot teach correctly, unless correctly taught the elements. As the monitors will not know how to mend pens for themselves and their classes, you must call them around you at an early day, and teach them in a class. After you have once taught a class to make pens, the younger children will learn without troubling you.

In *spelling* it is important that you drill the monitors, before employing them to teach classes. For this purpose call around you the monitors of spelling. Require them to stand with hands behind, that they may do the same by their classes. Pronounce the word to be spelled very distinctly. Require the child to pronounce it before he begins to spell. If he spells it wrong, those who discover the error and can correct it,

may hold up hands, as in reading. The monitor directs the nearest to the speller who held his hand up, to correct; and it is desirable in long words that he should point out the other's error, before he spells the whole word. If he correct and spell the word rightly, let him go up; and let all who go down spell the word for which they lose their places.

In reviewing to obtain new monitors of spelling, you will omit writing on the slate, and occupy the time usually devoted to that exercise, and spelling at the stations, with the review. This will be long enough; for it will not be necessary to have *every* word spelled, that has been spelled since the last review. You had better keep a spelling book of your own, and mark every word that presents any difficulty, with a pencil; and then this will serve as a guide to the monitor of dictation, in the selection of words to be written on the slate. Be sure to set a lesson every day for the spelling classes; and let as many as are capable, spell the same lesson, that more may have a chance to rise to the dignity of monitor.

In *arithmetic* you will be perplexed in several

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ways. You will find a variety of ‘arithmetics’ in the school, from Pike’s octavo to Temple’s primer. You must use all your influence to have these discarded. Let each child under six years of age be furnished with the Child’s Arithmetic, a little intellectual system, just published by the teacher of the monitorial school in Boston. As soon as the child is master of this, let him procure Colburn’s First Lessons of Intellectual Arithmetic, to which the former is a suitable introduction. Regular lessons can be given in these, and they contain directions for their use.

In *written* arithmetic, introduce, if possible, Colburn’s Sequel. Those who have ciphered considerably must have it: the monitors should use it as a guide in teaching beginners. Not that the use of either of these books is absolutely essential to the introduction of our system; but because, as we said before, in the choice of instruments, it is preferable to select the best.

Pay particular attention to *numeration*. Let the smallest child begin to make the figures, as soon as he has learned to write the alphabet. How the very youngest may be employed in

counting you will learn in the Child's Arithmetic above mentioned.

In *grammar* and *geography*, if you use those prepared for the monitorial school in Boston, you will need no other directions than those in the books.

We have alluded to *merits* and *class lists*. The system of rewards and punishments our experience recommends is the following. Let a fixed price be established for every exercise. For instance, let an attentive reader be allowed one merit; but if one has been very inattentive let him have a demerit: give to every speller who has missed no word in the lesson *one* merit; if he has missed only one word, give him half a merit. If he misses more than three, give him a demerit. So in arithmetic, writing, and the other branches. Give a monitor half a merit more than the best of his class receives, provided he has done his duty. In fine, let there be a fixed reward, if possible, for every thing; that as little as possible may be left to the judgement of the monitors; and that the children, knowing how many merits they are entitled to, as well as the monitor does, may see that he does them justice.

The teacher may be as particular as he pleases in enumerating the branches under which merits are awarded, but we think the following will be sufficiently particular.

<i>Record of Merits, Demerits, &c. for May, 1826.</i>					
<i>Names.</i>	<i>Punctuality.</i>	<i>Merits for Exercises.</i>	<i>Merits as Monitor.</i>	<i>Demerits.</i>	
<i>Ames. W.</i>	IIII	IIII	IIII II	I	.
<i>Barker. J.</i>	II	II	III	.	III.
<i>Cook. P.</i>	I	II	III	II	.
<i>Davis. L.</i>	III	III	IIII	III	.
And so on alphabetically.

Note. After four marks are recorded let the fifth cross them and form what is called a *score*. This will facilitate counting them at the end of the quarter.

Some may prefer a head for each branch. Each demerit is equal to a merit. Therefore, at the end of the month, add up the merits, and de-

duct the demerits. You will then have a pretty fair statement of what every scholar has done.

If an injudicious parsimony, but too common in those who manage our district schools, can be induced to unbend a little, a few dollars, distributed quarterly in rewards, will do more towards maintaining the necessary discipline, and encouraging industry, than any species of punishment by the master or the committee. Indeed, as we have observed in regard to other points, although our system may be carried on by the barbarous practice of flogging the body, without attempting to correct or improve the mind, we declare it to be the result of our experience with the worst as well as the best class of our population, that if a child cannot be improved by motives addressed to his moral feelings, corporeal punishment will only make him worse. It is true he may be compelled to submit for a time; but it is with a spirit full of revenge, anger, and other bad passions, which will stifle every good principle he may have possessed, or burst forth again at the first opportunity. We never yet found an advocate of castigation who was not willing to

allow that the good effects of it were doubtful, and that ‘the more one flogs the more one may.’

When it is ascertained how much money may be expended in prizes, find the value of every merit, and distribute the money, or prizes to that amount, in proportion to the number of merits each scholar has obtained during the month or quarter. This is preferable to fixing a certain value to every merit at first, for you cannot tell how many merits there will be, nor what sum it will require to redeem them.

By *punctuality*, in our class list, is meant a regular appearance at the hour for opening school. This should always be insisted on, especially in regard to monitors. If a reward for punctuality do not produce an early attendance, let those who come fifteen minutes too late receive a demerit or be sent home. Habits of punctuality are of the highest importance to the young; but in many of our common country schools, the master can seldom proceed to business until an hour after the hour set for opening the school. In one flourishing village of Massachusetts the children, in winter, carry each a stick of wood to school, nor is there any fire in the school room until a sufficient number of sticks has been

collected by this daily contribution. These things ought not so to be.

In regard to the system of Mutual Instruction, it should be understood that there are various modifications of it, caused by a greater or less deviation from the old method of saying things by rote, without exercising the judgement or proving the knowledge of the pupil by requiring him to apply it to some practical purpose. In some schools on the new plan, monitors are used; but lessons are recited in the old way without explanation. In others, the children are allowed to ask an explanation of the monitor; and the monitor is required to give it. We mention this circumstance because many good old fashioned ears are shocked with the noise necessarily made in a school of the *explanatory* kind, and may judge of the comparative merit of schools by their comparative silence and *orderly inaction*. No instructor can teach a class without frequently speaking to them; and the same indulgence should be allowed to monitors: the only point is, to check unnecessary conversation. It is easy to keep a silent and still school; but this is incompatible with practical instruction by the aid

of monitors. The free interchange of ideas amongst the pupils, when conducted in an orderly manner, is productive of much good, and should be encouraged. Noise is only injurious when it obstructs business; and in monitorial schools, *well regulated noise*, is rather an indication of industry than of disorder. It should be recollected also that those who make a noise are not those most offended by it. The tin kettle discourses excellent music to the child who beats it: the cotton factory stuns all but the workmen. A *silent* factory is a desideratum; but *much good work* is more desirable.

We shall conclude with one word of advice to school committees. As the success of any system depends upon an impartial exercise of it, and as the system proposed in this manual requires more exercise of the judgement of children than any other, it must be your endeavor to second the exertions of the master. Encourage him to deal impartially with all. Submit your own children entirely to his guidance: allow them no distinction to which their merit does not entitle them. The aristocracy of cities is

proverbial ; but you must have seen that few country schools are free from family influence. The squire's child must not be in the class of a poor man's son : the clergyman's son must be a monitor whether qualified or not. Frown upon all such distinctions ; and recollect that undeserved promotion will not excite your own children to exertion, but will discourage those who have nothing beside their own exertions to depend upon, and who keenly feeling their wrongs, will entertain but a poor opinion of your justice. Be generous towards the teachers you employ. Be careful to select a man of mild temper, and pure morals ; and when you have found such a one, let not the whole term of his service be embittered by the reflection that his services are undervalued. How can you expect a man to devote himself to the school under such circumstances ? Depend upon it he will give you only the money's worth of his time and exertions ; and this is all you can reasonably expect. We mention the subject of salaries, because we believe they are generally too low to induce a gentleman of talents to undertake the charge of a village school, and because to this circumstance, more than to any

other, (if we except the short term for which a male teacher is employed,) may be attributed the low standard of education in our common schools. If you cannot afford any additional expense, let a small piece of ground be cultivated annually by the boys for the benefit of the school; or let the clergyman and selectmen see that those who have nothing to spare to educate their children, spare nothing for the indulgence of some useless or pernicious habit.

[At the request of the publishers, the editor of the Journal of Education has compiled the following Appendix.]

APPENDIX.

THE system of mutual instruction is perhaps not so extensively known in New-England, as its merits would lead those who are acquainted with it to expect. The following brief arguments therefore, in favor of it, and the annexed history of its progress abroad and at home, may not be unacceptable as an accompaniment to the Manual.

This system aids the healthful growth and perfection of the body. The evils arising from close confinement long continued, from the sedentary position, and even from the much lauded stillness of most schools—though considered by some persons as indispensably necessary, or perhaps as very desirable,—are, to the reflecting mind, a source of pain. Restraint and constraint are alike irksome and exhausting: they entail languor and debility, and produce, perhaps, much of that inactivity of body and mind, which are the great barriers to success in the various departments of man's social relations. The constant suppression of the animal spirits, which it has too commonly been deemed the duty of teachers to enforce on the children committed to their care,—is, perhaps, one great cause of that debility which generates dyspepsy and consumption—the great enemies of health and happiness, in this region of the United States. How few among the thousands of children who are every year taught in common schools, are

destined for a *sedentary* life; and yet how undeviatingly, and how carefully is every little pupil *disciplined* for it! As if the best possible way of producing hardy and active farmers and mechanics, were to divest them of habits of action, and train them to the power of confining their bodies for the longest possible time to the smallest possible number of square inches.

On the improved system the body is free, or is exercised in various ways. The prevailing position of the arms and hands, tends to expand the chest, and produce an erect and healthful and graceful form. Occasional exercises of various parts of the body, are thrown in at suitable intervals. An agreeable alternation of attitude and posture, arise out of the various lessons. The flow of spirits, so natural and so advantageous to the young, is constantly kept up, and at the same time is well directed. An active body and an active mind, are the unfailing characteristics of the pupils of this system.—They enter on the business of life prepared for enterprise and usefulness.

The moral influence of this system is vastly superior to that pursued in the greater number of schools.

The new method conduces much to the *happiness* of the young. As no irksome restraint is employed, and a constant glow of pleasing activity prevails, education becomes a source of enjoyment: it is loved accordingly; and the feelings of children are thus enlisted on behalf of their own improvement. One peculiarly favorable feature of the monitorial method, is, that it furnishes children with constant employment, saves them from the temptations and the gloom of idleness, and early forms habits of industry, which are powerful aids to those of virtue—if, in fact, they do not constitute a great part of virtue itself.

On *the intellectual advantages* of the system of mutual instruction we can barely enter. A large volume might easily be written on this branch of the subject. But a few leading ideas are all we can find room to offer here.

The cultivation of the understanding takes the lead, and that of memory follows. This is the order of nature. But in most schools we find it in a great measure reversed. Children are made to get by heart what they cannot understand without assistance, and, not unfrequently, what is never once explained to them. A morbid species of memory, faithful to words, but false to facts, is the invariable result of this kind of training. The teacher's constant and anxious aim should be, to keep children from the habit of reading and repeating words without reference to their meaning. Every attentive observer of the youthful mind must have remarked children possessing ready memories and acute understandings, but no force of thought, and no retentiveness of memory,—no positive and marked mental character. Much of this deficiency is attributable to false methods of instruction, and especially to the ruinous habit of inattention necessarily produced by reading and reciting words which are not understood.

On the improved system, the memory is in fact more successfully cultivated than on the old. Nothing is presented to the memory but in an intelligible and distinct form, and with direct reference to use. Every thing, therefore, which is professedly committed to memory, is deeply impressed and permanently retained: more, certainly, than can be said of most lessons which are got merely by the words of a book which is hardly intelligible, and which can leave but a dim and evanescent trace on the mind.

The whole discipline of the monitorial method, is strictly practical: it breathes the spirit and wears the air of business. It avoids the inconsistency of training for action by seclusion and stillness. It begins the business of life in the very school-room; for it immediately sets the young to work, in the employment of imparting instruction.

The new system furnishes not only intelligent and active candidates for the various departments of common business, but insures the unspeakable advantage of express prepara-

tion for the office of teaching. It provides a constant supply of practical instructors, furnished with the aids of good system and thorough experience. *Every well-conducted monitorial school is in fact a nursery for good teachers.*

For arguments more immediately applicable to the details of the system we would refer to the following extract from the Report of the Instructor of the Boston Monitorial School.

It may seem unnecessary to say a word in answer to objections which have been made to the monitorial system; since its success has refuted them, in the most effectual manner; but I think they may be proved *theoretically*, as well as *practically* groundless.

It is said that children, comparatively ignorant, are unqualified to teach others. In answer to this, it might be sufficient to assert that we do not require children to teach any thing of which they are ignorant; but it is said that children are not qualified to teach what they *do* understand; because they are ignorant of other subjects, and but little older than their classes. This principle appears to me to strike at the root of all instruction; and no adult teacher, who must necessarily be ignorant of many things which he does, or does not pretend to teach to an audience *older* perhaps than himself, ought to be countenanced, for a moment. But the wisest and best of us go to church, and to lectures on all subjects without suspecting that the teacher is only a monitor, who knows a little more than we do of the subject under consideration, but is perhaps our inferior in other respects. The art of teaching consists chiefly in adapting the explanation to the capacity of the learner. That this qualification is possessed by few—very few—adults is a lamentable fact. Even their familiarity with a subject is sometimes the cause of their failure, in attempting to communicate it to others. Is it not a reasonable supposition, that the explanations of children to children, may be often better suited to their capacities, than the ex-

planations of adults? If it be granted that one child can teach another the alphabet, it follows that, with proportionate increase of knowledge, she can teach syllables, then short words, and so on to the end of all knowledge. It may be said, then, there is danger of a child's being required to teach too much. If the master is so ignorant of her capacity, as to require such an exercise, she will not attempt it. Children are more sensible of their defects, than their elders are, and have less art, and no motive, in concealing them. If, because a child is not thoroughly instructed, the capacity of her monitor must be questioned, what is to be inferred from the fact that pupils of all, even the best teachers, are often in the same condition?—I am almost ashamed to be opposing theory to theory, when I am furnished with what is the best of all arguments—a successful experiment.

But it has been said, grant that they can *teach*, it does not follow that they can *govern*. Children, it is said, lack judgement—so do men. Children are often partial—so are men. Children love to domineer—so do men. Children, then, are little men; and in what does their peculiar inability consist? Men, it is replied, have more judgement, when compared with children, than the latter have, when compared with each other. We may safely grant all this, and destroy its force, by saying that if they have less judgement in proportion, the drafts upon it are less also. The child's sphere of government is very limited, and always subordinate to the master's. The objection goes upon the presumption that monitors have full power to punish or reward, without being accountable for their conduct. But the reverse is the fact; for, in every case that can possibly be anticipated, their duty and power are clearly defined; and, in all cases, the scholar is allowed to appeal from the monitor's decision, to that of the master, who is always at hand.

It is allowed that self-government, and the government

of others, should constitute a prominent feature in every system of education. But shall children be taught that they must be discreet, impartial, and self commanding, and have no opportunity of exercising these qualities? If children lack judgement, they will run no risk of lessening their stock, by exercising the little they do possess. It should be recollected that every monitor is also a scholar; and our system is truly republican. Being sometimes governed, children will be less likely to grow imperious; and sometimes commanding, they will not easily become servile. *Men* were once thought incapable of governing themselves; but experiment has proved that those who made the assertion did not know every thing.

Perhaps the best test of the excellence of a government, is the general morality, order, industry, and happiness of the governed. In the best communities, some irregularities will appear; but these should not weigh against the general regularity. In forming an opinion of our discipline, however, if a death-like silence be the criterion of perfection, we shall certainly be cast. We have no ambition to produce such a state of things, and maintain it at its known cost of happiness, time, and labor. We love the hum of business; and our practical system cannot go on without it. The old system of committing to memory, and obliging the *whole* to be idle and silent, that *one* may work, is an unprofitable system. We aim at full and complete employment; and this we obtain with as little noise as possible. But we go farther, and assert from experience that this noise neither interrupts business, nor can be considered an evil. It is true that several classes recite at the same time, (that is, one of each class does,) but the classes are at some distance from each other, and face the centre of a semicircle, where sits their monitor. They can easily be heard by the monitor and by each other, and of course need not speak very loud. They cannot hear distinctly what is said in another class; and, having full employment in their own,

would not regard it, if they could hear. This power of attending to business, and abstracting their thoughts from surrounding objects and occupations, is an acquisition, which, in after life, will be invaluable.

It has been urged by some that we appeal too powerfully to the principle of ambition. Our system of rewards and punishments, has been explained; and it is clear that there is no danger from that. What then could have given rise to such an objection? If the activity and ardor which our children exhibit in all their pursuits, be unaccountable, perhaps I may suggest a more probable cause for them, than the abuse of emulation. I attribute them to the influence of example, the influence which active and industrious spirits exert upon their neighbors. This universal industry has been mistaken for unhallowed ambition; and, when we think of the striking contrast which it exhibits to the lifeless inactivity of most schools, we are not surprised at the mistake.

Another form of an objection already mentioned, (that monitors are incompetent to teach,) is, that the master does not teach *all* the children himself. It is true that he does not teach the smallest children *all* their lessons, but he reviews them often enough to ascertain their improvement, and to correct any errors which may have escaped the monitors. He examines them often enough to see that they are properly training for his hand. They are never out of his presence, and are always encouraged to ask his assistance, when it is needed. In a system so practical, it would be impossible for the master to attend to all. He therefore creates a sort of ubiquity, by stationing monitors to watch over such work as he cannot inspect himself. The master should bestow most of his attention upon the monitors; but no injustice is done to the lower classes; for they, in turn, will become monitors, and have so much of the master's exclusive care, that all former deficiencies will be amply made up. That there should be no obstacle

to this course, the instructor suggested the salutary rule which refuses admission to all children over twelve years of age. Now, as the older scholars withdraw, the younger fill their places, and are not kept back by the entrance of pupils older than themselves, and unwilling to be taught by them, although much their inferiors in knowledge. This rule has excluded about forty applicants for admission; but it has had a highly salutary influence upon the discipline and improvement of the pupils. The earlier children enter our school, the better. They cannot begin too soon to form those habits of industry, and acquire that docility, which our system is admirably calculated to form. So far from considering the instruction of children by other children an evil or defect that should be remedied, I think it desirable; and their time, as well as the master's, is, by this arrangement, employed to the best possible advantage. Our plan is adopted in every other avocation of life: why is it objected to in this case only? We require the monitors to teach what is simple, and easily taught, and leave the difficult parts of instruction for the master. The artist requires that the plain and easier part of his work be done by his apprentices, while the finishing is reserved for his own hand. But, in one case it has been asked, shall we not place our child under another master, until she is qualified to be a monitor in your school? I answer that that time will never come; for if children taught at other schools ever become equal to our monitors in the knowledge of *books*, they will be ignorant of the art of *teaching*, and comparatively indocile and insubordinate. Such a question supposes that no children are employed as monitors, but such as are qualified to enter the classes more particularly under the master's care. This is a mistake; for every child (except the youngest,) is, at times, employed as a monitor. They are thus betimes initiated; and, no sooner does a child know any thing that may be forgotten, than she is employed as a monitor, that the constant reviewing

of what she has studied, may fix it indelibly upon her memory. Teaching and learning, like reading and writing, go hand in hand, from the beginning. We never separate them.

In our estimate of the advantages of this system, I have said nothing of the benefit which monitors derive from it. We shall connect this part of the subject with our remarks upon another objection, namely, that our practical system affords no opportunity for cultivating the memory. If by this is meant that we do not require our pupils to say books by rote, we plead guilty. But however this objection may lie against *our school*, it will not lie against the *monitorial system*; for there is nothing in the system to prevent the introduction of this worse than useless exercise. It requires no ingenious reasoning to prove, that, if children are only required to recite a page or two from memory, *verbatim*, a monitor is as capable of hearing the recitation, as any master can be. But, if the objection imply that the memory of our pupils is not exercised in storing up as many facts as are well understood, it has no foundation in truth. The memory is, no doubt, the storehouse of the other intellectual faculties; but, for the sake of filling it up, shall we throw in all the broken useless furniture we can find room for? In a class of twenty, just promoted to my care, are several who have repeatedly committed to memory the large geographies used in common schools; but they neither rank at the head of their class, nor appear in any respect superior to such as commenced the study with them, but a few months ago, and never committed a word to memory. The immense difference of labor which this explanatory mode imposes upon the teacher and monitors, must satisfy any one, that personal ease is not our object in introducing it. We endeavor to exhibit every thing to the senses of the pupil. Instead of describing a kite to a boy, we should make one before his eyes, and then require him to make one. Instead of describing the road to

any place, we should go with the child, and let her see for herself. Which the child will recollect longest, the definition or the object, it is not difficult to determine. Our experience teaches us, that before children have reached the end of a large book which they are committing to memory, they have begun to forget the beginning. What an admirable method to prevent a master's having nothing to teach his pupils, and to save the expense of books! and what a comfort it must be to the little traveller on this delightful route, to know that when he travels it again, every object will be decked with the charm of novelty, and as fresh as if he had never seen it before! Even with all our care and practice, much is forgotten by the pupils; but we have a powerful check upon this natural tendency to oblivion, by the incessant reviews of former lessons, which monitors are obliged to make, while teaching. If any branch of education must be reviewed, how much more agreeable must be our method, and how much more will it diversify the exercise, and enlarge the thinking powers. Much as the public mind needs information on the subject of education, I think no one will deny that one cannot teach without also learning. But, if any parent doubts this fact, let him take a geography or other elementary book, and attempt to teach his own children. We will rest our defence upon the experiment. I have always found that those who teach most are the most intelligent scholars; and, for this reason, I always employ all, as far as our small number of scholars and classes will permit.

[The following historical sketch of the progress of the system of mutual instruction abroad, is extracted from Dr. Griscom's Address.]

The merit of having first demonstrated the advantages of this mode of conducting a school, is generally believed to belong to Dr. Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster; and there can be no question that both of these distinguished

men are entitled to the plaudits of the civilised world for the ingenuity with which they perfected their respective systems, and more especially for the indefatigable zeal and perseverance with which they extended the knowledge of their methods, and brought them into practical operation on so wide a scale. It is not to be supposed, however, that a method which economises so well the time of school instruction, and multiplies the power of the master, was never thought of, or practised, prior to the experiment at Madras, or that of the Borough-Road. Almost every teacher of ability whose reputation had drawn around him forty, fifty, or more scholars, must have perceived the advantage of employing the more advanced pupils in giving instruction, to a certain extent, to those below them, and thus enlarging his own attentions and saving that time which would otherwise have been sacrificed without profit. The experiment of Dr. Bell at Madras was undoubtedly prior to that of Lancaster at London; but the first efforts of the latter appear evidently to have been made without a knowledge of the former; and although in his first publication, Lancaster acknowledged that he had derived much benefit from Dr. Bell's hints, yet his subsequent arrangements differed so materially in their subordinate mechanism from the Madras invention, few persons who have inquired into the history of both systems, will hesitate to admit that he is entitled to the merit of inventor, and eminently of a public benefactor. But neither of these meritorious individuals was the first to demonstrate that a large school can be most advantageously managed by a systematic adoption of monitorial or mutual instruction. This had previously been proved in several instances in France, and especially at Paris in 1785, by the Chevalier Paulet. This instructor, aided by the liberality of the king, Louis XVI. placed his institution not only under the operation of the monitorial system, but established the trial by jury, so highly recommended by Dr. Bell. The documents in

my possession furnish various other evidences of this practice; but either from the effect of popular prejudice, or from the want of a more exact and better organised system of management, so clearly defined as to be perfectly intelligible from description, and easily communicated to those who might wish to put it in practice, the examples alluded to were lost upon the public; and the monitorial methods fell into disuse, until revived by the ingenuity and perseverance of Bell and Lancaster. Nor is it probable, that the complete success of these philanthropists in their respective establishments, nor their untiring ardor in propagating the knowledge of their systems, would have been sufficient to surmount the force of customs strengthened by immemorial usage, and to establish these new methods on a permanent foundation, had not their extraordinary effects been witnessed and duly appreciated by a few individuals of corresponding benevolence, and equally ardent in whatever concerns the improvement and happiness of their fellow-creatures. It was in this way that the British and Foreign School Society for promoting the Lancasterian System, and the National Society for advancing that of Dr. Bell were formed and organised; and such has been their influence, there is now not a single country within the limits of perfect civilisation where schools of monitorial instruction are not established; and none in the enjoyment of a free government, where the system is not spreading with a force and acceptance truly remarkable.

The report of the British and Foreign School Society, for 1823, states the number of schools in the metropolis to be 57, containing upwards of 900 children. The model School in the Borough Road, London, had alone instructed since its first establishment in 1798, 22,026 scholars. It contains 500 boys and 300 girls "and though there are many other schools," says the report, "within a moderate distance, the number on the books is always full, and at this time up-

wards of 100 are waiting for admission. Thousands of the rising generation are at the present time acquiring knowledge of the most valuable kind, by means of individuals who were prepared for labor in these central schools, and who are to be found in almost all parts of the world zealously engaged in their useful and important undertaking."

In addition to the unabated efforts of the parent society, there are auxiliary societies in several of the large towns of England whose agency is very influential in promoting Lancasterian schools in the minor towns and villages; and it may, I believe, be safely asserted, that there are few towns of any note in England that have not their monitorial school upon the plan of either Bell or Lancaster; and in many towns schools are established and well supported on both these systems.* In Scotland, the new system has made a less conspicuous progress than in England, but this is unquestionably owing to the superior previous condition of the primary and parochial schools in that country, which rendered a change less necessary;† and among a people whose habits are much averse to fluctuations, the adoption of any new scheme was much less to be expected. Nevertheless, the system of Lancaster (and probably that of Bell) is

* Facts such as these are not so extensively known in this country as they ought to be. Some opponents of the monitorial system seem to think they can argue it down. But it is too late in the day for such a movement. The system has been in successful and extensive operation for years. It is actually what might be called the district school system of England; so universally is it adopted.—*Ed.*

† In the introduction of the monitorial system into some parts of Scotland, the experiment failed, owing to its being abruptly and injudiciously adopted in schools in which the common plan had been all along followed. The novelty of the thing perplexed the teachers, and diverted rather than improved their scholars; the former being unfortunately not sufficiently acquainted with it to derive any benefit from it. In some places, therefore, it very naturally was laid aside, soon after its adoption. It is now more judiciously introduced, and meets with better success.—*Ed.*

making its way in Scotland. The Edinburgh Review long ago gave the sanction of its authority to the excellence of these systems; and in one place at least, viz. Inverness, a society is established for promoting the system, which two years ago had 35 schools under its notice, containing 1524 scholars.

But the most remarkable and cheering instance of the rapid progress of this invaluable system occurs in Ireland. A "Society for promoting the education of the poor in Ireland," commenced its operations about the year 1814, by establishing a monitorial school in Kildare-street, Dublin, for the double purpose of aiding in the education of the children of that metropolis, and of serving as a model school for the training of masters, for other schools throughout the country. By the generous efforts of the society, aided by the bounty of government, assistance has been liberally extended to other schools throughout Ireland, by furnishing masters, giving instruction in the mode of teaching, and by supplying utensils, lessons, books, &c. The number of schools which the society has thus assisted and put into train, has increased in a rapid progression since the year 1817, when the number was only 3, to 1824, when the number of schools under the society's notice was 1122, comprising 79,287 scholars;—so rapidly and easily does this beneficent system extend itself, under proper management, and so agreeably does it fall in with the inclinations of youth when properly trained to a comprehension and experience of its nature and advantages. The model school of this society in Dublin, appeared to me, in 1819, to be the best monitorial school I had seen in Europe. The number of masters which that society has trained since its opening is 633. And further to aid the cause of education, they commenced in 1817 the publication and sale of cheap books, adapted to the entertainment and moral improvement of children. Fifty varieties of these books have

been issued, and a total number of volumes, since the commencement, of 784,640.

Of the progress and success of the National Society of England, whose schools are upon the system of Dr. Bell, and whose aim is to extend the benefits of education in connexion with the church service, I cannot speak with much precision; but it is well known that the schools of this establishment are numerous, and I find it stated in an abstract of the report of 1823, that 77 new schools had been received into the union since the preceding report, and that within the year, twenty-one masters had been trained, (two of whom were for classical schools,) and eleven mistresses, and that 14 schools had been supplied with permanent masters, and 9 with permanent mistresses. Upon the whole, as it respects Great Britain and Ireland, there is abundant authority for the remark of the British and Foreign School Society in their 13th Report, that ‘The system of mutual instruction does not shrink from investigation, but on the contrary invites it. Your committee are persuaded, (they add,) that the more closely its pretensions are examined, the more resplendent its merits will appear, and that, like the pure gold in the furnace, it will lose nothing by the trial.’

[Since last year’s Report* of the British and Foreign School Society, it appears that there have been added to the Central Schools 500 boys and 300 girls. Since the commencement of the Institution, there have been educated 16,120 boys, and 7,290 girls—in all 24,010.

There are 60 Assistant Schools in London, at which 10,000 children are educated.

In Ireland there were at first only 261 schools; to these 1,500 have been added. The number of children educated amounts to 100,000; and 200 masters and 300 mistresses, are at present receiving instruction for that country.

* This notice is dated in the present year.—*Ed.*

the total number of instructors at present is 1,171, among whom gratuities to the amount of £ 6,250 have been distributed. The number of cheap books sold last year was 122,000, and since the commencement of the Institution, 1,089,703.]

In inquiring into the progress of this system on the continent of Europe, we discover the most unequivocal evidences of the confidence which enlightened and liberal minded men of almost every nation place in its efficacy as a moral and intellectual engine of extraordinary power, and therefore worthy of the sanction and patronage of all free governments. In Paris, a society has been some years in existence for promoting the system in France; and in the early stages of its career it was exceedingly successful: several hundred schools were established, and the government seemed disposed to lend its aid to a scheme which promised to rescue the lower classes from the deplorable ignorance in which they are too generally involved. But, unhappily, the schools have to struggle under the weight of clerical displeasure, and the society seems to be threatened with annihilation. The spirit of the system has, notwithstanding, proved to be congenial with the tastes of the French people: many of the schools were in excellent order, and some parts of the general scheme of mutual instruction have been improved by the ingenuity and learning of the Savans of that country.

A society exists at Florence, for the promotion of the monitorial system, which has under its patronage several large and well conducted schools, and a number of the most eminent of the nobility and learned men of Tuscany, are deeply interested in the extension and prosperity of these schools.

Schools upon this plan, are established in all the Ionian Islands, in one of which (St. Maura) alone are 12 schools.

In Switzerland, at least in some of the more liberal can-

tons, the system is in high repute and successful operation.

In St. Petersburg, a model school for 200 boys, has been patronised by the emperor, by an annual donation of 7000 rubles, and Count Romanzoff is spreading the system in the villages of his vast estates.

In Sweden there are now 67 schools on the Lancasterian plan, of which 13 are in the capital. Twenty-two were established during the year 1823.

The same system is making progress in the Netherlands, in Denmark, in the Island of Malta, in British India, in Canada, Nova-Scotia, Newfoundland, Bermuda, the West Indies, in several parts of Africa, and is now receiving the decided support of most of the newly established and free governments of South America.

It is well known, that Joseph Lancaster himself is now in Columbia, engaged in the propagation of his system, under the liberal support of the authorities there; and that President Bolivar, who has travelled in Europe, and is without doubt well acquainted with the merits of the system, has lately granted him \$20,000, to assist him in his operations, with the promise of a larger sum when it may be necessary.

[As a most interesting exhibition of the results of improved mutual instruction, we present the following translation from Count Lasteyrie's *Nouveau Système D'Education*, given in the appendix to Dr. Griscom's *Monitorial Instruction*, forming the substance of an interesting and able report made in 1812, by M. Cuvier, on the primary schools of Holland.]

“ It will be perceived, that various methods in use in the schools of Holland, for more than thirty years, have been adopted in those of Lancaster. The Hollanders wisely imitated all the good practices which were existing, or had existed before the epoch in which they founded their primary schools. The author of the report thus proceeds:

“ It would be difficult for us to describe the effect produced upon us by the first primary school which we entered in Holland. It was one of those supported by public charity, for the children of the most indigent families, those who in many other countries would be obliged to drag out a miserable life, on the highways, either as mendicants or robbers. Two large, airy, and well lighted halls contained three hundred of these children, all in cleanly condition, placing themselves, without disorder, noise, or impoliteness, and performing, at a concerted signal, all that was required of them, without the master’s uttering, necessarily, a single word. Not only do they learn by certain and ready methods, to read currently, to write a fine hand, and with entire correctness to perform mentally and by figures, all the calculations necessary in common life, and also to state their thoughts, neatly in little essays; but the books which are given them, the pieces which they copy, are so well arranged, and succeed each other in an order so judicious; the precepts and examples are mingled with so much art, that these children become penetrated, at the same time, with the truths of religion, the precepts of morality, and all the knowledge which can be useful in active life, or consoling to them in misfortune. Care is taken to ascertain, by frequent questions, and by exciting them to state their difficulties, that nothing of what they read is lost upon their understandings.

“ Finally, prayers and hymns sung in concert, composed expressly for the purpose, and breathing the sentiments of duty or gratitude, give a charm to this instruction, and at the same time impress a religious and tender feeling well calculated to confirm their effects. A master and two assistants, taken from the scholars themselves, govern this large number of children without noise, without invective, without any corporeal punishment, but by keeping them always interested and always occupied.

“ The first sight of this school gave us an agreeable sur-

prise: when we had entered into all the details we could not avoid a real emotion, in thinking on what these children would have become, if abandoned to themselves, and what they actually were; but, we said to ourselves, this is perhaps a solitary example, produced by the efforts of a wealthy city, or by the zeal of a few citizens of extraordinary generosity.

“We were informed, however, that as we advanced through the country, we should divest ourselves of this error; and, in fact, we found every where the primary schools upon the same footing with the exception of those in which the masters, *from age or habit, could not disengage themselves from their old routine.* It is not even in the cities that they are the best. Even on the frontiers of Groningen, and many leagues from the great road, we found, in the villages, primary schools as numerous, and better composed, and better kept than those of the largest towns; because, in the cities, the children of the rich are taught in their own houses, whereas in the villages they go to school with others: but every where we observed the same cheerfulness, the same decency, the same neatness in the pupils and the masters; and every where the same instruction.

“What is the most remarkable on this subject is, that these great results have been obtained in a few years, and by simple means, without constraint, without requiring of the masters any sacrifice, and without uniting them by any other means than by their natural obligations as public functionaries. A brief recital of this important operation belongs essentially to our subject.

“Thirty years ago, the little schools of Holland resembled those of other countries. Masters, almost as ignorant as those they were bound to instruct, were scarcely successful, in the course of several years, in teaching their pupils to read and write indifferently. These schools had no general superintendents; the greater number originated in private speculation; various religious communions sup-

ported schools for their own poor under the supervision of deacons, but these schools were exclusively reserved for the children of the parish; those whose parents were not inscribed in some church had no resources; even the catholics had no schools, though their churches were so numerous in the country; the deacons of the reformed churches changing, agreeably to a certain order, had no fixed principles. The result of all this was, that a great part of the youth were stagnating in ignorance and immorality.

“The first ameliorations were produced by the efforts of a benevolent society called the ‘*Society of Public Good*,’ which itself owed its formation to the zeal of a pious and humane individual.

“John Neuven-Huysen, a Mennonite minister, at Monikendam, in North Holland, perceived that the numerous associations formed in the United Provinces for the advancement of commerce, and science, and charity, although they contributed to spread among the people moral and religious ideas, did not produce all the effects which were desired, because the works which they published were too extended, too learned, and too dear to be purchased by those for whom they were destined, and because there existed no point of connection sufficiently intimate between them and that portion of the people to whom their assistance was the most necessary.

“Having conceived a plan more simple, and a procedure more direct, he began about 1784, to associate with him a few friends: these attracted others: the utility of the thing once known, multiplied the number of members, so that, from 1785, they were obliged to divide the association according to the cantons in which was the greatest number of subscribers. These divisions were called departments: each of which had its own administration, and the number of them extended as the society increased. In truth, the advantages of the institution were so apparent to charitable men; and the various governments which suc-

ceeded each other in Holland shared so fully in the public persuasion, that it enjoyed a continually increasing prosperity, and in 1809 it included more than 7000 members.

“The early funds of the society were employed in encouraging by premiums the composition of little works which treated in a popular manner of the most important truths of religion and morality. To these were added by degrees, publications on the principles most important to be understood, of domestic and rural economy, natural philosophy, and hygiene, or the preservation of health. Some of them treated of particular professions, not neglecting even the propagation of vaccination and instruction in midwifery: The effect of these works, simple, short and cheap, was soon apparent. There was in Holland, as in other places, a popular work styled ‘the Shepherd’s Almanac,’ filled with puerile prescriptions derived from astrology; and as in other places the country people wished no other. The society prepared a Calendar, in which these follies were displaced by useful observations on agriculture, or conversations on health; and its success was such that in two or three years, the editor of the Shepherd’s Almanac was obliged to renounce his publication.

“In the mean while, education was the principal object of the studies and operation of the ‘Society of Public Good,’ and the history of its labors in this respect may be divided into three distinct branches: 1st. The researches which it excited, on the physical education of children as well as on the best method of instruction and moral education. 2d. The preparation of elementary books, to aid in putting these methods in practice. 3d. The schools which it founded, not with the intention of holding them permanently, and still less of assuming the general charge of primary instruction, but to offer temporarily to common schools, models by which they might attain to greater perfection.

“ Besides these schools, which are destined only for those children which the members of the society might place in them, some of its departments actually established gratuitous schools for the poor; and the greater number of them formed little libraries, with the view of affording the workmen and workwomen, after quitting the schools, the means of rational and profitable entertainment.

“ Various towns excited by the example and encouragement of the society, undertook the renovation and extension of their schools. It was thus that the magistrates of Amsterdam, following, in 1797, the advice of the two departments of that city, undertook the erection of their noble schools for the benefit of the poor that were not enregistered in any church,—schools which now include (1812) more than 4000 children of both sexes.*

“ But in 1801, 1803, and 1806, the general government gave to the society testimonials of its esteem and conformed to the advice of many of its members, in the measures it adopted, at those three periods, for the reform and general organisation of primary instruction.

“ The law of the third of April, 1806, is still the regulation by which all the primary schools are governed.

“ The number of schools and pupils is already very remarkable. There were in Holland at the time of the union 4451 primary schools of all classes, and more than 190,000 pupils, for a population of one million nine hundred thousand souls; which constitutes ~~one~~ ^{one}-tenth of the inhabitants, and proves that the greater part of the children of an age to go to school are actually in attendance; indeed, several of the prefects, especially that of Groningen assured us, that at present not a single young man can be found in their department that cannot read and write.

“ The formal and regular instruction of the public schools consists in Reading, Caligraphy, Orthography, mental and

* Amsterdam had had from 1746 but two charity schools. In 1819 there were eleven.—*Dr. Griscorn.*

common Arithmetic, some elements of Drawing, Geometry, and Geography, and the singing of hymns. But the books in which the children are made to read, the subjects which are dictated to them, the examples which they copy, the hymns and cantiques which are given them to chant, all tend to penetrate their minds, and give them, almost insensibly, an infinity of other useful knowledge.

“The composition, choice, and gradation of books, constitute the basis of the system. There is an astonishing number of them, each one having had the liberty of proposing his own: but M. Vanden-Ende has reduced, by order of the minister of the interior, a catalogue of the best, which he has distributed agreeably to their contents in the order in which they are to succeed each other in the classes.

“Those to be first used, are accompanied with suitable pictures for impressing on the minds of children the knowledge of exterior objects, and of connecting in their memories the words to the ideas which they represent. Next follow short moral histories or stories calculated to interest them. From these they proceed to others which treat of those objects of nature which are most curious and useful to man; processes of art most necessary to be understood, and throughout the whole are interspersed, without affectation, useful reflections on Providence, and on the duties of men to each other. Sacred history, profane history, and the history of the country, treated in such a way as to take with children, are the subjects of other little works. In some of them are explained the principles of civil and criminal law. In teaching them to draw, or rather to trace regular lines, they are made to judge of length and of angles by the eye; and equal care is taken to render all their other exercises practical, and subservient to the purposes of morality and utility.

“The consequence is, that children thus taught have engraven on their minds, while simply learning to read,

write, and calculate, things which the scholars of ordinary schools never learn, or learn only with difficulty when their profession permits them to read, after leaving school, and which inspire them with just and noble sentiments, which the world will doubtless weaken, but of which it will never entirely efface the impression.

“ Almost as much has been written for teachers as for scholars; the method which they are to follow, and the questions they are to put to their scholars, are pointed out in each of their respective works.

“ The means contrived for instructing in religion children of every different persuasion, without exposing them to dangerous controversies, is exceedingly ingenious, and at the same time truly respectable. The particular dogmas of each christian communion are treated on Sundays by each minister in his church. The history of the New Testament, the life and doctrine of Jesus Christ, and the dogmas in which christians agree, are explained in the schools on Saturdays, when no Jews are present on account of their sabbath; but the truths common to all religions, are intimately interwoven with all the branches of instruction; and to these the others all stand related.

“ The distribution of time is generally two hours in the morning, and two hours in the afternoon for ordinary scholars; and two hours in the evening for young people that have left school, and gone to some occupation, but are still desirous to be perfected in what they have learned. This evening school is an institution of the greatest utility, not only confirming the benefits of the other, but also withdrawing the youth from infinite sources of disorder and corruption.

“ It remains to be stated, how it is, that so many children are taught at once to read and write, a thing so difficult, that it is hard to imagine, at an advanced age, how it could have been acquired in childhood.

“ The smallest scholars are placed on benches one be-

hind another, and opposite to a black board. The master has his letters on small blocks which he attaches successively to the board, by grooves or any other mechanism. That which strikes and amuses children most, is best. He directs their attention to the form of each letter, and teaches them its sound, beginning with the vowels, and proceeding to the simple sounds of the diphthongs, and then to consonants, simple or compound, which are designated by their sounds, by adding only an *e* mute. Forty or fifty children look on at once, and pronounce together; and repeat in the same manner when prepared, easy syllables and words which the master exhibits to them in the same manner. The ignorant are thus taught without the weariness of personal attention, and without the risk of being scolded. Whole words are read together in chorus; and it is then only that books are given to them, and they are made to read singly: in this exercise, they are even made to read at hazard, in order that the eyes of all may be obliged to follow the reader.*

“ Writing follows nearly the same process: forty or fifty children, furnished with little slates and pencils of talc, follow with their eyes whatever the master traces on the large board. From simple strokes they are conducted to letters, and thence, (as soon as they can name them,) to syllables and words, at first agreeably to the model, and afterwards from dictation. As they advance in orthography, they are exercised in correcting, verbally, phrases purposely written with faults, upon the board. Questions are finally put to them, which they are obliged to answer in writing, and thus they are led on to the art of composing

* It is almost needless to remark, that the manner in which reading is taught in the schools of Holland, bears a near resemblance to that of Lancaster. It is the same with writing, but with this important difference, that in the new method, reading and writing are simultaneously taught, and consequently the children experience less difficulty, and learn more rapidly.—*Dr. Griscom.*

letters and such other essays as the people have occasion to practice.

“ We have stated that while they are learning to read and write, the choice of their lessons affords them an infinite number of useful ideas. Care is taken to impress these ideas on their minds by questions varied and repeated in every form. Other questions lead them to the definition and propriety of terms, and to the distinguishing of apparent synonymes and homonymes. Upon none of these subjects is the master abandoned to his own imagination, for the numerous books furnish him with all possible questions.

“ In geography, they commence with the plan of their own city or town, drawn upon a large scale on the wall, and they are made to distinguish the cardinal points and directions of the streets. They are next shown a map of their canton, then of their province, and thus by degrees they proceed to the map of the world. All these maps are large, and but few places are marked upon them in order that their first ideas may not become confused; and it is only towards the conclusion that they are taught from common maps. A summary idea of the sphere finishes geography, instead of commencing it, as in almost all our books.

“ What is the most astonishing, is the calmness and rapidity with which all this is executed. The master has scarcely need to speak except to ask his questions. The pupils have signs for every thing which they wish to ask for. When a question is put, all those who think they can answer it, raise a finger, and the master selects the respondent: in a word, nothing is heard but what the lesson rigorously requires.

“ This tranquillity and decency of manner, are one of the principal objects of education. All the children are obliged to present themselves with hands and faces washed. In coming in, even the smallest know how to slide into their places without saying a word. In the schools for the poor, where they are furnished with books and paper, the

first on each bench, at the end of the lesson collects all that has been employed on his bench: in the other schools each child has a little box in which he places his own articles, and their ambition is excited to keep every thing in the best order. Not even a hat nail is left neglected by Dutch precision.

“These details may appear trifling, but there are none of them which do not tend to influence the habits of a whole life. Far then from despising or neglecting them, we should incline to study more profoundly all the circumstances connected with them, well persuaded that a vast number of these particulars ought to be spread into all the schools of the empire, where they would produce the most marked effects upon the manners of the lower classes.

“The attention of so great a number of children is supported by two principal means. The first consists in the choice of what is said to them, and in endeavoring to interest them. In the commencement the teachers play with them; and when once they can read, instead of giving them, as with us, only one book, and which very often they cannot understand, a variety is presented to them, which always contains something new, and adapted to their age. The second means is a mild emulation, which is carefully preserved from degenerating into unkindness. The first scholar of each bench keeps a list of the good or bad answers of each of the others, and of all their faults. This statement is every day posted up, and the account of each day noted at the end of the week. When the town committee, or the superintendent of the Canon arrives, they give to the best scholar certificates which they show to their parents. At the end of the year, also, examinations are made and prizes given. A wise employment of these means has justified the entire abolition of corporeal punishments.

“One thing, however, shocked our habits in the Dutch schools; and that is that girls are admitted along with the

boys. But we were everywhere assured, that no inconvenience from it had ever been remarked; and as this custom prevails not only in the schools for the poor, but in all the village schools, where parents pay a good price for tuition, and where they might of course otherwise dispose of their children, we have been obliged to give faith to this testimony.

“Children on leaving these schools are much sought after, both for domestic servants and apprentices to trades; a proof that their education stands high in public estimation.

“Nothing further remains with respect to the history of primary instruction, than to explain in what manner schools so numerous can be furnished with masters sufficiently capable; and it is here in a particular manner that the established system manifests itself in all its fecundity.

“They have no need of normal classes, nor of seminaries for school masters, nor of any expensive or complicated means contrived in other countries. It is in the primary schools themselves that masters are formed, and that without requiring any particular expense. The *Society of Public Good* has also the merit of having first contrived this simple and efficacious method. It grants to the best pupils gratuitous instruction, and permits them to remain in the schools two or three years longer than others, on condition of their engaging in the business of instruction. As the condition of school masters has become, by degrees, more honorable and lucrative, as the schools have advanced in improvement, the number of competitors has increased in the same proportion. Those two or three additional years of study, are employed in the enlargement and perfection of their knowledge; and these young people afterwards become assistants to their masters, and teach the younger scholars; they then pass to the station of sub-masters; and as the inspectors of the Cantons are con-

stant witnesses of their zeal and success, they recommend them according to their merit, to places which may be vacant, and continue to watch over them for their advancement agreeably to their deserts. When there is no other mode of nomination, a rivalry of skill is instituted; and then their merit alone recommends them. The career is so certain, that there are some, as we have been told, who pay for the privilege of commencing their trade under good masters.

“It was in 1800 that this method was employed for the first time in the free schools of Amsterdam, and there have already been obtained a first master, eight first sub-masters, and all the adjuncts actually on duty. Many instructors have also issued from these schools for places in other cities and villages.”

We may cite, says Dr. Griscom, as particular evidences of the success of the monitorial method—when applied to what are called the higher branches of education—the examples of the Charter House School in London, and of the High School in Edinburgh, in both of which the monitorial system has been thoroughly tried in its application to the study of Latin and Greek. Dr. Bell observes, (*Elements of Tuition*, part III. p. 249,) “I have this day attended the annual examination of the Charter House School, in the presence of Dr. Fisher, *master* of the Charter House, &c. &c., by the chaplains of his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury; and can state that the three upper forms, taught, as well as the rest of the school, by monitors, were examined in the higher Greek and Roman classics; and that every member of these classes proved himself fully master of every book which he had read. The examination, altogether, was in the highest degree satisfactory to the examiners, and most gratifying to my feelings. The school has grown in number thirty scholars since last year, and is in a most flourishing state.

“It is still made a question,” observes Dr. Bell, “wheth-

er or not the new system is applicable to schools of a higher description and especially to Grammar Schools. Indeed it is frequently alleged, that this mode of tuition will not apply to classical schools: just as I was often told, on my arrival from India, that it would do very well under the government of Madras, in the torrid zone, and with the children of the eastern world; but not in this free country, in a temperate climate, and with the children of the charity schools of England.

“The latter objection is completely done away by facts: and the fleet career of the Madras system, in the first stage of its course, has outstript even my sanguine expectation, who have uniformly looked forward to its silent and gradual progress, and ultimate diffusion over the world.”

“The former objection, as to grammar schools, I am persuaded, needs only be submitted to the same test of repeated and continued experience to be also done away.”

But the example of the High School of Edinburgh under the Rectorship of Mr. (now professor) Pillans, affords the most unequivocal evidence of the benefits to be derived from the application of the new system to the acquisition of language. In that school the number of scholars at the time alluded to, was nearly 900: the whole being divided into five classes, four of which are under as many separate masters, and the higher under the immediate charge of the Rector. This school was founded exclusively for instruction in the Latin language, and to this the attention of the masters is chiefly confined. Dr. Alex. Adam who preceded Mr. Pillans, introduced the study of Greek and Ancient Geography, and the practice is continued by his successors. When Mr. Pillans commenced his Rectorship, his class consisted of 144 which (he observes) might be considered an average one, for that period. His last class, the largest he ever had, (that of 1819—20) contained 288.

The Monitorial System was introduced by this gentleman

from a conviction of its power; and no other proof of its efficacy need be asked than the extraordinary success which attended his Rectorship, during a period of ten years, and until his removal to the university.

“On entering on my office” says Mr. P. “though the class was not so numerous as at present, by one hundred, yet I felt very sensibly the inconvenience of prescribing business for a set of pupils, between the best and worst of whom the difference was so great, that the lessons which were too easy for the one, were too difficult for the other. I found also that when such a number of boys are together in a class, the spirit of emulation is apt to languish, both because it is utterly impossible to examine each boy daily, and because it signified little to a boy whether he stood one hundred and thirty or one hundred and forty from the head of the general class.”

“This experience which must be that of every teacher, who undertakes to manage a large class without assistance, led to the systematic adoption of monitors and small divisions.”

The monitors are chosen, and the whole class arranged into divisions, in the following judicious manner:—“The first fortnight of the teaching year, which begins the first of October, is employed in such examinations and exercises in the general class as give an opportunity for talent and acquirement to display themselves, and mount towards the top of the class. When the cleverest boys have risen to the head, the highest 25, (supposing the class to consist of 250,) are taken as monitors, and one more to act as general monitor, and the remainder are divided among them at the rate of 9 to each, in such a manner that the highest boy, or *dux*, has the 27th and 8 succeeding boys; the 2d *dux* the 36th and 8 below, and so on to the 25th from the top, who has the 8 lowest in the class of his division. Sometimes this is varied by giving the head boy the lowest division, and thus reversing the order of appointment. The

monitors are in this way brought into contact with every part of their less advanced school-fellows. This not only makes the boys better acquainted with one another, but it gives the rector an additional means of judging of the monitor's qualifications, by comparing the order and progress of the same divisions under different monitors. At the close of the year, (observes the rector,) I have not unfrequently allotted a prize book to the monitor who should be adjudged by the greatest number of his school-fellows' votes, to have discharged his duties throughout the year with the greatest temper and ability; nor have I ever found the judgements of the majority to differ from my own. The monitors remain attached to the divisions to which they are appointed for one fortnight; at the end of which they give up a general and neatly digested account in writing of the behavior and progress of their pupils, recording those who have risen to higher divisions, or fallen into lower, during their incumbency. The reading aloud of the most remarkable of these results, is a powerful stimulus to exertion and good conduct. In the new appointment, the 25 are taken as before, but do not consist entirely of the same boys, or in the same order; for the daily examination and skirmishing of question and answer, has probably made considerable alterations; those below the 25 having all along strained every nerve to raise themselves within the envied number, and thus to have the honor, (for it is esteemed a high one,) of being appointed monitors on the approaching occasion.

The great opportunity which the system of monitorial divisions gives the master of becoming acquainted with the temper, habits, and talents of every boy, even of so great a number, is worthy of remark. The rector is confident that he can learn more of each boy's character out of 250, than he could have done, upon the former plan of education, with a class of 100. While the lessons are going on in divisions, his principal employment is to hear appeals,

(that is, when a monitor declines to decide a point, and it is referred to him,) and to go about from division to division, watching the progress and behavior both of boys and monitors. A thousand circumstances occur in the divisions, such as boys becoming too keen and loud in their discussions, monitors betraying a little impatience, &c., which afford endless opportunities for the master to attach himself to a particular division, and by a little good humored rallying, doing more to teach them the command of their temper, mutual forbearance, gentleman-like conduct, and other virtues, than could be effected by formal lectures, or severe punishments. The good effects of the system upon the monitors, are very apparent. Instead of sitting restless and yawning, after the first translations of the lesson, as the higher boys on the common system generally do, while the same thing is said over and over in the lower parts of the class, he is now placed in a responsible situation of power and trust, where he not only has occasion to show himself thoroughly master of the lesson, but is called upon to exercise temper, judgement, firmness without harshness, and a variety of other virtues, which will be of the utmost importance to him in future life.

“The discussions also that take place here among the pupils, on the precise import of words, the propriety of translation, and the more elementary questions of the gender and flexions of nouns, conjugations of verbs, or the quantity of syllables, are of a nature to sharpen their faculties, and give them the ready use and habit of applying them, much more than in the common mode of conducting business in a large general class. In the latter, the *ipse dixit* of the master closes all discussion and doubt; and the boy is employed, not in questioning, but in receiving and treasuring in his memory what he hears. But he does not think himself bound to receive what a boy, in most respects his equal, may affirm, if it should not coincide with his own ideas. Lest, however, this discussion should be too fre-

quent or prolonged, the monitor has power to stop it by saying, 'Go on with the lesson;' and if a boy still thinks himself aggrieved, he has liberty to make his appeal to the master. The same advantages have been found to accrue from the monitor's having the correction of the *versions* or written exercises of their divisions. These exercises generally consist of translations, either from Latin into English, or English into Latin. The passage is one with which the monitors are, or are made to be, familiar. General directions are given by the master as to the principles of correction. The monitors take them home, and return them the next day, with their remarks and corrections, and a summary of their errors. When the exercises are returned to their owners in divisions, a few minutes are allowed for the boys to look at the marks, and either to admit the justice of them, or to ask an explanation from the monitor; and this produces a great circulation of knowledge, both as to the true meaning of the passage, and the spelling and grammatical propriety of their own language. Sometimes, when time will allow, the monitors who are next each other in the general class, are ordered to exchange the versions they have had, that they may detect each other's errors of omission or commission; and though in this way errors may escape detection, and others may be marked which are not materially wrong, the general result, in promoting free discussion and researches into the reasons of things, is much more beneficial than if the master were to correct the whole himself. In that case, the boy would scarcely take the trouble to look at the corrections at all. When this inquiry has ended, each boy is ordered to have his corrected exercise under his book, to show to the master as he goes round among the divisions. In making this tour, he settles places for the exercises by inspection and information from the monitor; and in this summary way it is not difficult to detect bad writing and ill-done exercises, and con-

denn the culprit to loss of place and an additional exercise. This method would not answer with exercises of a higher description, such as Latin and English verses, themes, analyses of Livy, &c., which the rector therefore examines and corrects himself.

“ In this account of the benefits of monitorial divisions, it is by no means intended to undervalue the importance of general prelection and instruction. They react on each other so powerfully, that each makes the other more efficient than they could be singly.

“ In the general class, therefore, when all are assembled in compact order and in perfect silence, that information is conveyed which is afterwards to be distributed and more deeply impressed in divisions. The mistakes committed there are rectified, the monitors themselves are sifted, and examined in every variety of way, and the tone and direction are given them as to their mode of conducting the divisions. The time of the school is nearly equally divided between *general* and *monitorial* instruction; and the very act of moving into divisions and back, once or twice a day, has a considerable effect in amusing the mind and relieving the body, and has in fact banished almost entirely, the proverbial *ennui* and listlessness of school.

“ It is another, and not the least glorious triumph of this system of teaching, in a country where the lash has been so long established, as the legitimate instrument of instruction, that it has been gradually diminishing the use of the rod, and that for the last two years it has banished it entirely; and I now, (observes the rector,) feel quite confident, that I shall never more have recourse to this clumsy and ineffectual mode of excitement and punishment.

*Dr. Griscom's Monitorial Instruction.**

* It is to be regretted that this work is not more widely circulated in New-England. The extracts contained in this appendix will, it is hoped, induce all teachers who are in the spirit of improvement, to give Dr. Griscom's volume an early and thorough perusal.—*Ed.*

BRIEF ACCOUNT OF THE PROGRESS OF MUTUAL INSTRUCTION
IN THE UNITED STATES.

The following matter is chiefly extracted from pamphlets and other publications which have appeared in various parts of this country, but which are not all accessible to individuals in particular places. It was thought that perhaps the best argument for the new system of instruction would be the intelligence of its rapid and extensive introduction in schools and seminaries of every kind, in all parts of the country.

Monitorial Schools in New-York.

We commence with the High-School of New-York, under the care of Messrs. Griscom and Barnes—an institution justly esteemed one of the most favorable specimens of a seminary conducted on the plan of mutual instruction.

‘The High-School was opened on the first of March, with more than two hundred pupils; and in the month of May their number had increased to at least six hundred and fifty.

The extreme heat of the summer drove a considerable number of the pupils to the country. The rooms of the school were all filled shortly after the re-opening of the school, subsequent to the summer vacation, and there is now on the list of applicants a considerable number who cannot be admitted.

The number now in school is six hundred and fifty, that being the complement.

In the introductory department, all the students are engaged in similar studies. Their progress has been very gratifying, and in some instances quite remarkable. This department exhibits an air of order, attention, activity, and contentment, which has satisfied and delighted every individual who has visited it. Many of the children, who,

when they began, could not write a letter, already write a fair hand, and have been promoted to the study of the simple rules of arithmetic. The greater part of these children commit and recite arithmetical tables every day, and upwards of 130 cipher. All of these children are taught some portions of natural history and geography, in which they receive much valuable knowledge from familiar lectures, with the aid of pictures and maps. The children are kept constantly occupied, without fatiguing their attention for too long a time with one thing. Even their incessant restlessness and activity are turned to account by the discipline and exercises of the school. It is hardly possible to enter the school without perceiving that what is commonly called a love of mischief in children, is in fact a love of mental occupation. They are taught with the utmost simplicity; and their good feelings and affections are called forth by the unwearied tenderness and parental kindness of their instructors. Willful and continued disobedience is scarcely known. In short, the experiment which has been made in the introductory department has been more successful than could have been anticipated; and the Trustees recommend to the Society with the fullest confidence to entrust their children to the institution at a very early age.

The studies pursued in the Junior Department, are, Spelling, Reading, Penmanship, Elocution, Arithmetic, Geography, sketching Maps, English Grammar, Linear Drawing, and Composition. The monitorial method has triumphed over all the obstacles it had to encounter in the first organisation of this school. The Trustees are satisfied that a fair comparison between this school and any one conducted upon different principles, will evince the great superiority of its method of instruction over every other that has been tried.

In the Senior Department, all who enter the school do not intend to remain for the same period of time—and many who leave it expect to enter immediately upon the

active business of life. It is very plain that these circumstances must require corresponding classifications of scholars and of studies.

Some pursuits are nevertheless common to all. All the scholars in this department attend to Spelling, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography, Elocution, Composition, Drawing, Philosophy, Natural History, and Book-keeping. Philosophy and Natural History are taught chiefly by lectures and by questions; and these branches, together with Elocution, and Composition, are severally attended to, one day in every week.

The usual Latin and Greek Classics are read, such as Cæsar, Cicero, Virgil, Horace, Xenophon and Homer. A large class study French, and a few pursue Spanish; classes of from 6 to 20 are engaged in Book-keeping, and in the various branches of Mathematics, such as Mensuration, Geometry, Trigonometry, and Algebra.

The Trustees might particularise some bright examples of extraordinary acquirement; but they forbear to do so—and content themselves with saying that the general progress of both the Senior and Junior Departments affords the most conclusive evidence that the Monitorial system of instruction is capable of being adapted to the higher as well as the lower branches of education.

It is the opinion of those who have had the most experience, and the best means of judging, that they have never known so great proficiency made in the same period of time, as has been made in the upper departments of the High School.

In all these studies the method of mutual instruction has been brought into operation, and has satisfied the sanguine expectations which were formed of its efficiency.

Instruction is multiplied in this way almost indefinitely, so that it may be said that a teacher who gives but six hours instruction in a day, multiplies them to 120 with the help of 20 monitors. The two great instruments of learning, at-

tention, and emulation, are made to act with the greatest possible power.

To this it may be added, that boys often possess the power of communicating their ideas to those of their own age with more facility than those who have forgotten the processes by which they acquired their knowledge.

Lectures are given to the boys of the Senior department once a week on Experimental Philosophy, with the aid of a good apparatus. The method adopted to give precision and accuracy of knowledge on the subjects of these lectures, and to impress them on the memory, has been attended with the happiest results. A series of questions has been framed embracing all the main principles and facts intended to be illustrated. These questions are dictated to the scholars, who write them simultaneously on slates. They are then answered by the Professor, and illustrated, if necessary, by experiment.

These questions are afterwards copied by the boys into their books. The whole school is divided once a-week for this object, into sections of eight, each having a monitor. The monitors repeat these questions to their classes, and receive their answers. The number of correct and of incorrect answers which each boy gives is noted in the monitor's book. In this way the intelligence and progress of each boy are ascertained.

The success of the High School having been entirely satisfactory, a considerable number of stockholders were anxious that a similar Institution should be provided for Females. A meeting of the Society was therefore called, and it was unanimously resolved to purchase ground, and erect a building of dimensions sufficient to accommodate 400 scholars.

The Trustees accordingly purchased a lot 72 feet by 100, in Crosby, near Spring-street, in the vicinity of the edifice for boys, on which they have erected a brick build-

ing of three stories, 44 feet by 60. The cost of the ground, the building, and its furniture, will be about \$18,000.

The terms and course of instruction in the Female High School, (which was opened on the first of February last,) are as follows:

Introductory Department.

Miss CHARLOTTE GARDNER, Miss SARAH BELCH, *Teachers.*

The Alphabet—Spelling—Reading—Writing on slates—Writing on paper—Elementary Branches of Arithmetic—Grammar—Geography, principally by Maps—some branches of Natural History, and plain Needlework.

Junior Department.

Mrs. SARAH L. RAINSFORD, Miss PARMELA ROBBINS, *Teachers.*

Spelling—Reading—Definitions—Writing—Geography—English Grammar—Arithmetic, mental and mechanical, as far as through the Rules of Proportion—Continuance of Natural History—Linear Drawing—Use of the Globes and Maps—Plain Sewing—Marking—Cutting out and Making Female Dresses.

Senior Department.

Miss SARAH STARR, Miss ELIZA E. CLARK, *Teachers.*

Spelling—Reading—Definitions—Writing—English Grammar, Composition—Geography, with the use of Maps and Globes—Mapping—higher Arithmetic—the three first Books of Euclid—Book Keeping—Moral Philosophy—History, and Belles Lettres. Fine and ornamental Needlework—French Language—Drawing and Painting—Lectures on Astronomy—Natural Philosophy, and Natural History.

MONITORIAL SCHOOLS IN BOSTON.

[In this city, the zeal and indefatigable industry of an individual have brought the merits of the system of mutual instruction before the attention of the public; and the re-

sult has been not only the distinguished success of his own school, but the adoption of the monitorial system in several other flourishing seminaries; and so decided is the public approbation of the new method, that it has been adopted in several of the public schools, and will probably be introduced in all.

We begin with the school under the charge of Mr. William B. Fowle, the gentleman to whom we have just alluded, and to whom the publishers are indebted for the first part of this Manual.]

In their First Biennial Report the Trustees of the above school say, More than two years have elapsed since the establishment of this school; and its success has equalled the most sanguine expectations. Much is due to the able and indefatigable labors of the instructor, who has been obliged not only to pursue an untried path, but to do so with little aid from the experience or labors of others. The result of the experiment is a full conviction that the system is perfectly adapted to general use; and the hope is entertained that it will soon be extensively adopted.

[From the Appendix to the above Report we extract the following paragraphs.]

A prospectus of this school was published in the spring of 1823, in which the object of its founders was stated, in as definite a manner as circumstances would permit. This paper was circulated among the friends of improvement; and a meeting of gentlemen, interested in the subject, was held at the Exchange Coffee-House, on the 16th May of the same year. The meeting was opened by an able address from George Ticknor, Esq. explanatory of the object in view, and the general advantages of the system of mutual instruction. The society was then organised, and the following gentlemen were elected;—viz. James Savage, President; Jonathan Phillips, Vice-President; Lewis Tappan, Treasurer; John S. Foster, Secretary.

The same gentlemen still continue in office; except

Mr. Tappan, who, in retiring, gave place, as treasurer, to Francis J. Oliver, Esq.

The Society was incorporated in June 1824. Its stock is divided into 100 shares of \$20; most of which are sold.

The school was opened with eight scholars, Oct. 14, 1823.

[The following is Mr. Fowle's account of his method of instruction: it forms part of the Report mentioned in the preceding page: it was inserted in No. I. of the American Journal of Education, and was reprinted in the pamphlet entitled First Biennial Report, &c.]

I have said that children four years old are received into our school. For the sake of perspicuity and order, I will begin with such a child, and conduct her through all the branches yet taught in the school. Every child in school is furnished with a slate and pencil, which are considered part of the furniture of the school. The first object is to teach the alphabet. An A is made on the child's slate by another competent child, called a monitor. The child is told the name of the letter, and asked to imitate it. Few do so without some persuasion; but after the monitor has held her hand, and made a few letters for her, the child will never need such assistance again. Her first rude attempts are praised, she feels proud of her work, and ambitious to go on. After making perhaps fifty As, she is shown a B, told its name, and encouraged to imitate it. In this way, she will learn to make and name three or four letters in two hours; but, lest she should be tired of this exercise, she is shown a book, and asked to pick out As and Bs, or such letters as she has been writing. In this way, the alphabet is easily taught, in one month; whereas on the old plan, from four to six months are consumed in learning the *names* of the letters, to say nothing of being able to write them. The child then takes the spelling-book, and writes words of two letters; pronouncing them frequently after

her monitor. In this way she soon becomes acquainted with the four pages of her spelling-book, which succeed the alphabet, and which, in the book we use, contain all the combinations of letters, and all the sounds which can properly be called English. After she has written her few words a sufficient time, she is required to pronounce and spell them to her monitor. But this is not her only exercise; for, young as she is, she is capable of doing something in arithmetic. "Fancy" beans are placed before her; and she is taught to count them, then to add, subtract, and divide them. When tired of this, she is taught to make the figures on her slate, as she had done the letters before, and then, perhaps, to draw houses and other objects, by way of reward. The child is never idle, and never wishes to be so.

She is now required to write words from *dictation*. This is one method of studying the spelling lesson, and is performed as follows. Each row of desks, (and there are eight or ten,) is called a class; and each of these classes writes a different word, because each studies a different spelling lesson. Each class has had a spelling lesson previously assigned; and all sit watching a monitor, called the monitor of dictation, who selects a word from the lesson of the eighth, or highest class, and spells it very distinctly. The eighth class immediately commence writing it on their slates. The monitor then proceeds to the seventh class, and gives them a word from their lesson in the same manner, which they write. She then goes to the sixth, fifth, and so down to the first class, giving each a word from their lesson. By this time the eighth class have written their word, perhaps twice, she gives them another, and then does the same to the seventh, and others as before. While the slates are filling in this way, a class of children who are good spellers and good writers, are stationed, one or two in each class, to inspect the slates, and correct errors and badly formed letters. When the slates are filled,

they are all cleaned at once; and the *dictation* again commences. In this way, the difficult words of the lesson, are all written, and exhibited to the eye; and it is impossible for any child to avoid going over her lesson at least once. The despatch with which words are thus written, may be calculated from the fact that the monitor of dictation never stops, but goes to each class, in constant rotation, until the slates are filled.

After the words have been written in this manner, the children leave their seats at a given signal, and form classes of from four to six, around scholars called *spelling monitors*. These are the best spellers in the school, and are selected as follows. At the end of each fortnight, all the spelling classes are formed in one line, and reviewed by the master. They are required to spell every word in the lessons of the preceding fortnight, and to take precedence as they spell well or ill. After this exercise is ended, the highest in the line are taken for monitors, the ensuing fortnight: the four or six next to them form the highest class; the four next, the next in rank; and so on, to the lowest. When the classes have formed around their spelling monitors, the lesson is spelled in the following manner. The monitor pronounces a word distinctly, the highest in the class pronounces it after her, to show that she knows what it is, and then spells it. If she mistakes, the next points out her error, then spells the whole word and "goes up." Then the child who first missed is obliged to spell the word as corrected, that she may be profited by losing her place. As the number of children in a class is very small, each is obliged to spell a great many words, and must necessarily pay close attention to the words spelled by her classmates.

As soon as a child can write words of four or five letters, she is required to read. The best readers are selected for monitors, by an examination similar to that for spelling monitors; and these reading monitors are taught by the master. The rest of the scholars are divided into small

classes of five or six; and, leaving their seats, form a semi-circle around the monitor. The children are allowed to correct the reader, and "go above her" for so doing; and the monitor is required to read often to her class. The small number in a class affords each child an opportunity of practising much; and the habit of correcting each other makes them attentive and, sometimes critically correct. The monitors are frequently changed, that if any one has communicated an error to her class, her successor may detect it. All the classes are reviewed also by the master; and the best readers are promoted to be monitors, or to rank with higher classes.

Here I would make one remark which is equally applicable to every other exercise. Such is the number of classes, that every child can be accurately classed with her peers, and a fair competition allowed. In schools on the old plan, where the classes are sometimes very numerous, the lowest are necessarily very inferior to the highest; and children, when brought into competition with others, so greatly their superiors or inferiors, lose all desire to excel, because success is hopeless; but when her competitors are her equals, or nearly so, the child will seldom refuse to exert herself.

The next exercise is arithmetic. I have already said that even the youngest is taught to count and perform simple operations with beans, her fingers, and such aids. Soon a little mental arithmetic is introduced; but, as the excellent little work of Colburn is too difficult for such small children, manuscript questions prepared by the instructor, are used.* Next Colburn's First Lessons are studied; and about the same time, written arithmetic is gradually introduced. This, however, is for the present completely subordinate to the intellectual. The monitors of arithme-

* The Child's Arithmetic mentioned at the close of this Appendix, is now used for the above purpose.

tic recite to the master, and then disperse to their stations to act as monitors. Their classes form around them; and the lesson which had previously been set, is recited. If any explanations are necessary, the monitor who has gone over the ground before, explains; but, if she is at a loss, she applies directly to the master. In this way, the little classes get a great deal of practice, and the monitor reviews her studies. For the sake of variety they then take slates and cipher. The monitor dictates sums verbally, and the children are taught to write amounts from dictation. They are never allowed to copy sums, and consequently must acquire a knowledge of *numeration*, as useful as it is uncommon. In addition, the highest adds the first column aloud, and tells the rest what to set down and what to carry: the next takes the second column, and does the same. Any one who corrects another goes above her, as in spelling or reading; and, as all must aid in doing the sum, the attention of all is secured. It is so with subtraction, and all the other rules. The highest scholars cipher in Colburn's Sequel, and record their operations in a manuscript.

In English grammar, the class of monitors recites or *practises* with the master. The first object is to teach children the distinction that exists between words; and in aid of the grammar, which is simple and practical, something like the following method is adopted. The beginner is shown a heap of cards, on each of which is written a word. She is required to assort or class the confused heap. She finds it impossible. She is desired to pick out every word that is the *name* of any thing. This she will do with ease and pleasure. The heap is greatly reduced. She is desired to pick out such as imply *doing* something. She will do this, and so with all the other classes of words. She may then perform the same exercise in a book. She begins to study her grammar, but advances not a step without putting in practice what she learns. It need not be said

that before children can parse, they can often speak and write correctly. The constant use of a slate and pencil naturally leads to written communications with each other. Children six years old write very good letters to their play-mates; but, as these loose compositions afford no good opportunity for correction, I generally tell the young class a short story, and require them to write it on paper in the best manner they can. These I correct, and return to them with suitable advice. This method relieves them from the intolerable labor of writing, when they have nothing to write about. The compositions of the upper classes are of a different order.

The process of teaching geography is explained quite fully in the text book used by the scholars. This is to children a pleasing study, and those who are but five or six years old may be usefully engaged in it. A child that can imitate a letter, can imitate the outline of a country—roughly and badly, to be sure, at first—but sufficiently well to fix in her mind the prominent features of it. Her lesson requires her to find the important objects of the map she is drawing. She finds them, marks them on her little map, feels acquainted with them, and proud of the acquaintance. She begins to measure distances, to compare sizes, and in fact to draw. The improvement has been astonishing in this branch; and, to some of the children, it is as easy to draw an outline of any country from memory, as to make any letter of the alphabet. Their geography is entirely practical; and the first part, all that has yet been printed, is confined to topography; and this is nearly all of modern geographies that the memory retains. Beginners draw small maps from common school atlases. After they have drawn each several times, they draw maps of various countries on a large scale. There are but four children in the school who do not study geography.

As soon as a child has learned to shape and join letters correctly on the slate, she is required to write on paper.

The monitors are under the care of the master; and, after they have written a copy, are dispersed to their various classes. Writers on paper are classed according to their proficiency. The master, besides taking the oversight of all, has one or two classes under his particular care. Monitors are placed over the rest; and, in most cases, two to each class,—one to make and mend pens, and the other to set copies. The monitors are, during the time of writing, behind their scholars, looking over and instructing them. As it has been objected that monitors sometimes set imperfect copies, it may be well to consider the objection for a moment. Setting aside the fact that engraved slips are seldom suitable for beginners, being either of an improper size, or lacking simplicity; and passing by the fact that many masters, to say nothing of *mistresses*, who pretend to teach writing, cannot equal our monitors, I will venture to deny the correctness or truth of the objection; and for the following reasons: First, experience shows that children seldom regard a loose slip after the first line; and nothing disgusts them more than to write a second copy from the same slip, as they must do, if only a limited number of engraved slips is provided. Children prefer, in the second place, to write after written copies; and if the master sets all of them, he cannot inspect the classes while writing. Besides, a monitor with only four or five copies to write, will be more likely to write them well, trying, as they always do, to excel, than the master will, hurried and busy as he must be, and compelled, as he often is, to write with any pen he can find. The question then is, are not monitors, who are, to say the least, better writers than their pupils, and can be constantly watching over them, a full equivalent for a master's copy, without any inspection? Finally, I believe a child will be more likely and more anxious to exert herself, when there is some hope of equalling her copy, than when she knows this to be impossible. This is not hypothetical, but a principle of our

nature, exerted on every other occasion. We have said nothing of the immense utility of this exercise to the monitors, but if what has been adduced is not sufficient to remove the objection, we challenge a comparison of our writers with those taught by any other mode.

These remarks will apply to reading also. A very young monitor, with a sense of her dignity, will be able to point out to her little class as many errors in hearing them read fifty verses, as a master would in hearing only one; for this is nearly the proportion of practice between the two modes. Besides, the monitors read much for the purpose of instructing their classes. The fact is, the whole depends upon the master. If he correctly instructs the monitors, they will correctly transmit his instructions to their classes. An examination of even the lowest class in our school, will satisfy any one disposed to cavil; and upon this examination we may safely rest the defence of the monitorial system.

Connected with writing on paper, is the *making and mending of pens*. This is done entirely by the children or their monitors. Every class that comes under the master's care, is instructed in penmaking; but they seldom wait for this. Being allowed to help themselves, as soon as they please, the making of pens, which enslaves masters of common schools, and is a mystery to most adult females, is a very simple operation in our school. It is never necessary for me to mend one pen. A child who mends her own pen, does not write so well for it, at first; but she soon recovers, and acquires an independence of others, which those only can appreciate who cannot make a good pen.

I shall omit many exercises subsidiary to those already described, such as reading, spelling, saying the multiplication and other tables *all together*, an exercise which has a powerful influence upon their habits of order and attention, and is a rapid and pleasing method of reviewing many exercises; for, many pupils who are afraid to speak alone,

are emboldened by numbers; and it is no more difficult for the master's ear to detect an error in the multitude of voices, than for a musician to discover a discord in a choir. These exercises also have a powerful effect in banishing that monotony and *ennui* which so often reign in schools conducted on the common plan.

After this tedious enumeration of my labors, you will be surprised to hear that not the least important branch remains to be mentioned, I mean *general instruction*. It has been my incessant care on every occasion, and on every subject within the scope of my own knowledge, to inculcate useful information. To enable myself to lose no opportunity of doing this, my intercourse with my pupils has been as familiar as that of a parent. No magisterial dignity has prevented the approach of the most timid child; and a perfect knowledge of all their little peculiarities has been the pleasing consequence. I am aware that such a state of things is supposed to be incompatible with the rigid discipline expected in large schools; but the experience of two years has satisfied me that it is as yet unnecessary to assume the circumstance and terror which have been considered the inseparable attributes of a good pedagogue.

After this particular description of the exercises, lest their variety and number should leave upon the mind an idea of confusion and disorder, some description of the general principles upon which the exercises are conducted, may be necessary. In the first place, then, no pupil is allowed to be idle; and it is the duty of the master so to arrange the lessons, that a class shall be continually under his care; and that class must not contain one of the monitors whose turn it is to be on duty. To enable him to do this, there is a set time for every recitation of every class. Monitors of arithmetic, for instance, recite to the master, and then go to teach arithmetic classes. While they are doing this, the monitors of grammar recite to the master,

and are ready to teach classes, by the time the arithmetic classes have finished their exercise. While the monitors of grammar are teaching their classes, the monitors of geography are reciting to the master, and are ready to teach their classes, as soon as the classes are dismissed by their grammar monitors. In this way, a constant succession of fresh monitors is provided; and the frequent change of exercises prevents the children from being fatigued.

There is a different classification in every branch of study; and in classing the pupils in one branch, no regard is paid to their rank in another. Hence it not unfrequently happens that a monitor of reading teaches her monitor of arithmetic, or a monitor of spelling has in her class her own monitor in geography. In this way, every child has a fair chance to rise, if her genius leads to excellence in any thing. In common schools, a good arithmetician or reader cannot be first in the class, unless she is superior in every other branch studied by her class.

It may be worth our while here to compare the amount of *practice* obtained by each child in our school, with that of schools on the common plan. Let it be premised that the master is, during the whole time, as busily engaged as any master on the other plan can be. Our school consists, say, of eighty pupils, who attend five hours in the day, not including the afternoon school taught by a female. Five hours, supposing the master never to be interrupted in his labors, and the scholars allowed no recess, will, on the old plan, give each the personal attention of the master just *three* minutes and *three* quarters. But, if the master be interrupted, all the exercises must stop of course. On the monitorial plan, supposing the classes to consist of six, each child will be actually practising *fifty* minutes; and, if the master is interrupted, the exercises of the school go on, as if nothing had happened. But even this estimate falls far short of the truth; for, in some exercises,—writing on the slate or paper, for instance,—every child is engaged *all*

the time. To this should be added the extraordinary attention required in such small classes, compared with that of large ones. If, in a school of only eighty pupils, the advantage is so much in our favor, it will be doubled in a school of one hundred and sixty; and so on.

We come now to the subject of *discipline*. It would be unnecessary to say that no corporeal punishment is inflicted in this female school, could we believe that it is never allowed in others. We need no check upon absence; for the absence itself is a severe punishment to the pupil. We check tardiness by rewarding punctuality; but, if this is not sufficient, we deduct the tardiness from the time allowed for recess; and as few children love to sit still while their fellows are playing, such cases seldom occur. This is the only penance we inflict. By a vote of the trustees, the sum of twenty-five cents a scholar is appropriated every quarter, for rewards. This forms a fund, say twenty dollars, to be distributed quarterly, amongst the scholars. Now, as the usual method of distributing prizes and medals, while it gratifies one or two pre-eminent scholars, disappoints and disheartens a great many, fully as deserving, and affords no stimulus to the majority of the school, who never expect to gain the prize, we have adopted a more equitable and satisfactory method, which relieves the master or trustees from the painful task of selecting the best scholar, and affords even the least eminent as much reward as she deserves. A nominal currency, called *merits*, is introduced, and a certain number of merits fixed for every exercise; so that each child knows how much she can earn, and how many merits her classmates are entitled to receive. An alphabetical list of names is written, against which as many merits are marked in scores, as she is entitled to. If she can do more than the exercise required, she receives extra merits. These merits are marked the moment the exercise is finished; but, as it would take too long to call the roll of the whole school at the end of every

exercise, each monitor is required to keep a list of the children in her class, say five or six; and, at a given signal, the marks are in a minute recorded upon these lists, from which they are, once a-week, transferred to the general list kept by the master. At the end of the quarter, the number of merits each child has acquired is counted, and then the whole number awarded to all the scholars, added up. By this gross amount the prize fund of twenty dollars is divided, and the cash value of each merit is found. By this method every child receives as much as she is entitled to by her industry; and no murmur has ever been heard. Those who have been able to understand this description will see that there is no limitation to the number or value of merits, the latter depending upon the former; and whether there be one thousand or ten thousand merits distributed in the quarter, each child will receive her proportion of the fund. But, as the share of some will be too inconsiderable to purchase a valuable prize, the amount is credited, if they request it, in a book kept for that purpose, and then added to the amount of the next quarter. Some pupils have never taken up a cent since they first entered the school, preferring to receive their whole sum, when they withdraw.*

But there is another class-list, kept for a very different purpose, and called the *demerit list*. Whenever a child offends against the known regulations of the school, one or more demerits, according to the nature of the offence, are marked against her name; and these demerits are deducted from the amount of her merits, at the end of the quarter; but should they outnumber her merits, they are charged to her, in account, and deducted from the next quarter. This is the only punishment, except the loss of recess, ever used in the school, and it has been found sufficient to re-

* It is much to be desired, that a *purer* motive to exertion, than even the ingenious one mentioned above, could be substituted for those which have hitherto been employed in most schools. *Ed.*

strain the most careless or ungovernable. Your instructor is of opinion that no other punishment is necessary in any school. Corporeal punishment is allowed in some monitorial schools; but the founder of the system discountenanced it, as hardening vicious boys, and ruining the temper of good ones. He proposed various modes of mortification and penance; but it is believed that a few dollars, appropriated and distributed as we propose, will be found more simple and efficacious. The only school I ever taught, previous to this, was composed of children mostly of the poorest class in our city, such as cannot now be found in any other public school. One year, I pursued the system of castigation, with no little rigor; but, becoming convinced of its evil tendency, I tried my present system, the second year, with perfect success. The children were more obedient, more attentive, and more happy.

High School for Girls.

[We have mentioned that the Monitorial system is coming into use in some of the public schools. Of these the most distinguished is the High School for Girls, under the care of Mr. Ebenezer Bailey. From the printed account of this Seminary we extract the following information.]

At a meeting of the School Committee, held May 10, 1825, on motion of the secretary, it was

Voted, That a committee be raised to consider the expediency and practicability of establishing a public school for the instruction of *girls* in the higher departments of science and literature, and to report upon the same to this board.

Voted, That this committee consist of Messrs. Welsh, Pierpont, Basset, and Hayward.

At a meeting of the board, held June 22, the report of this committee was read, and *unanimously* accepted.

[Some extracts are subjoined.]

“The committee appointed to consider the expediency

and practicability of instituting a school for the instruction of the female children of this city, in the higher departments of science and literature, have had under their consideration the matter referred to them, and ask leave to report to this board;

That your committee have construed the terms in which the subject has been referred to them, as inviting their attention, in the first place, to the *expediency*; and in the second, to the *practicability*, of the measure proposed.

In the first place, in regard to the *general* expediency of placing women, in respect to education, upon ground, if not equal, at least bearing a near and an honorable relation, to that of men, in any community, your committee think that no doubt can, at this day, be entertained by those who consider the weight of female influence in society, in every stage of moral and intellectual advancement; and especially by those who consider the paramount and abiding influence of mothers upon every successive generation of men, during the earliest years of their life, and those years in which so much, or so little, is done, towards forming moral character, and giving the mind a direction and an impulse towards usefulness and happiness in after life. As to the *general* expediency, then, of giving women such an education as shall make them fit wives for well-educated men, and enable them to exert a salutary influence upon the rising generation, as there can be no doubts, your committee will use no arguments at this board; but will confine themselves to the *particular* expediency of provision for a higher education of our daughters, at the public expense.

And your committee think favorably of making an effort to this end, for the following reasons which are particular, as well as for the many reasons which are more general in their nature.

In the first place, it would render more efficient, and, consequently, more profitable to the city, the provision

which has already been made for the public education of its daughters.

As our public Grammar schools are now constituted, some of the finest scholars in the girls' department are seen in the first class, at the age of eleven or twelve years, by the side of girls of fourteen or fifteen years old, who have been rather tolerated in the first class, either from courtesy to their age, or from pity to their unsuccessful efforts, than entitled to a place there, on the score of their good scholarship. As the class must, on the present system of organisation, move on together, the former are continually held in check, that the latter may keep in their company; and, as the masters have neither time nor authority to go with them into higher studies, it is easy to see, what is of every day's occurrence, that the more sprightly girls find it difficult to fill up their hours profitably to themselves; and are in constant danger of falling into habits of inattention, and mental dissipation; a danger which now presses upon them for two or three of the last years that they are allowed their seats in the public school. Now, by the school proposed, this evil, which is a very serious one, would be obviated. The same field would be opened in this school, for the girls as has, for a few years, been so successfully opened in the English High School, for the boys in the Grammar schools. An object would be presented of honorable ambition, and of lively competition, to the misses who are now condemned to two, and sometimes three years, very inadequately and unprofitably employed; and those indolent habits of mind might be avoided, which it is so much more easy to prevent than to correct.

Secondly, the school contemplated seems to your committee to be particularly expedient for this city, in respect to the impulse that would be given by it to the whole machinery of our public instruction, through the medium of the *Primary schools*.

These schools are daily gaining the confidence of the

community, and, consequently, are daily furnishing a greater and greater proportion of the children to our Grammar schools. Of course, it is of continually increasing importance that these *first* schools should be taught by those who are themselves well educated. They are, and probably will be, taught exclusively by women; and it is doing no injustice to the city, or to the gentlemen who so faithfully superintend these schools, to say, that they are not always able to find women qualified as they ought to be, to take charge of these very interesting public institutions. A school like that now in contemplation, would certainly and permanently furnish teachers for the Primary schools, competent in every respect to render the city efficient service; and especially in this respect, that they will have gained, by their own experience, a thorough knowledge of our whole system of public instruction, and the relations of its several parts to each other. Thus, the city will insure to itself a greater excellence and uniformity in the Primary schools, than is possible at present, and be always able to recur to its own resources, to meet its own wants;—exhibiting thus, in morals—what has been so long a desideratum in mechanics—a piece of machinery that, by its own operation, produces the power by which itself is driven.

Thirdly, your committee think a school such as is proposed, particularly expedient to this city, in regard to the experiment that might be made in it, of the practicability and usefulness of *monitorial* or *mutual instruction*; or at least, of so much of that system as *on experiment* would be found to accord with the genius and habits of our community. That *something* of this system might be introduced into all our public schools, to the benefit of the schools and to the pecuniary advantage of the city, your committee can hardly doubt. One experiment has been made, and made successfully. But there were considerations which prevented the carrying of that system up from the school in which it was tried, into the higher public schools. The

same system, with some qualifications, has been under successful experiment in a subscription school, composed of the daughters of our most respectable families; and your committee are persuaded that, under the control of a master of judgement and genius, so much of that system might be profitably introduced into a female High School, as would prove to the public in this city, that the same might be carried into our *Grammar* and *Reading* schools, at least, to great advantage. At any rate, a *satisfactory experiment* might be made. Should it fail, as it hardly can, the city will lose nothing but the time and comparatively trifling expense of making it; and should it succeed, the city will secure to itself the better instruction of one third more children than are now instructed, and at probably one third less expense.

[This school was opened in February last, with 135 scholars; and has been in highly successful operation since that time. Visitors are freely admitted to the school, and have opportunity of observing the exercises of the classes. The public opinion formed under these circumstances, is in the highest degree favorable. The assertion may be safely made that in no case has any institution risen so rapidly in public estimation. The school presents an air of intelligence, order, neatness, facility, and despatch, which speaks volumes in favor of the new method.

After repeated visits to the school, we are enabled to furnish a brief account of its present condition and arrangements, which, imperfect as it is, cannot fail to prove deeply interesting to all who are gratified by the advancement of public education.

Candidates for admission into this school, must be, at least, twelve years of age; and they are admitted on an examination in those branches of education which are pursued in the public grammar and writing schools of the city; namely, **Reading, Spelling, Geography, Writing,**

English Grammar, and Arithmetic. The course of studies, which is calculated to occupy three years, is as follows:—Reading, Spelling, English Grammar, Composition, Rhetoric, Modern and Ancient Geography, use of the Globes, Projection of Maps, intellectual and written Arithmetic, Elements of Geometry, Algebra, Demonstrative Geometry, Principles of Perspective, Natural Philosophy, Astronomy, Chemistry, Botany, Book-keeping by single entry, History of the United States, General History, History of England, History of Greece, History of Rome, Natural Theology, Moral Philosophy, Evidences of Christianity, Logic, Latin, and French. Some of these studies are *required* of all the scholars, and others are *allowed*, as evidences of distinguished proficiency, and *as motives to higher efforts*. No pecuniary rewards are given in the school. All the means used for promoting punctuality and exciting emulation, are strictly of a moral or intellectual character. If, for example, all the members of a section perform any given exercise promptly and with unerring correctness, they have a right to demand as long a lesson as they please, for the next exercise of the same kind. And such are the disposition and arrangements of the school, that this alone might prove reward enough to excite as great a degree of diligence as is desirable.

Other means, however, are used not only for the purpose of exciting emulation, but also of promoting punctuality in attendance, and lady-like deportment. An accurate account of every scholar's performances, conduct, absence, tardiness, &c. is kept on record; and, at the end of each quarter, she is promoted or degraded, as this shall appear in her favor or against her. Besides the regular exercises of the school, the principle of *voluntary labor* is introduced as far as practicable, and with great success. Indeed, a scholar always performs a voluntary exercise with more pleasure and profit, than a task prescribed by the teacher.

As the High School for Girls has been in operation but

about six months, it consists, at present, of one class only. A new class is to be admitted every Autumn. At the beginning of the third year the school will be full. The first or highest class will then leave annually, to make room for their successors. The school being yet in its infancy, no arrangements have been made for the accommodation of the classes hereafter to be admitted. It is hoped a three-story building, in some central situation, may eventually be erected, with each story fitted for the reception of a class. An important feature in the method of teaching now pursued, will render it necessary that the several classes should be in separate rooms. We allude to *oral instruction*. The school is called to uniform order, at proper and convenient times, when the teacher explains to them in a familiar manner, such principles connected with their studies, as seem to require illustration. As the scholars advance farther into higher and untried paths of education, these remarks will become more necessary and more frequent. While the observations addressed to the highest class, would be altogether premature to the lowest, those addressed to the lowest would be 'a tale thrice told' to the more advanced scholars. Much time and labor would be thus thrown away; to say nothing of the thousand inconveniences incident to managing so large a number of pupils in a single room, and nothing of the bad habits of mind which scholars would be liable to acquire, by *pretending* to listen to their teacher, while speaking on subjects they were not prepared to comprehend, and in a language they could not understand. This is a point on which we feel impelled to enlarge. The measure of progress in education is not, How far has a scholar advanced in the departments of a given branch, or the pages of a particular book, but, Does the learner really understand what is studied,—has the teacher *explained* it,—has he rendered it interesting,—has he caused it to make so lasting an impression that it becomes incorporated with the exercise of the pupil's mind,

not merely on the subject supposed, but on all others with which that is connected,—are habits of attention, of reflection, of reasoning, cultivated? The attainment of all this is above the reach of mere book study and mechanical recitation: it must come directly from the mind of the instructor: it must be caught from his lips.—Any thing that would interfere with thorough oral instruction we should earnestly deprecate.

The school is divided into *sections* of twelve scholars each, who are as nearly equal in their attainments and talents and application, as circumstances will admit. These sections are arranged anew every quarter, when those who have excelled are advanced to a higher standing, and those who have not kept pace with their class are degraded to a lower rank. The places of individuals depend upon the Records, already named; and the business is regulated by such fixed principles, that the school could be classed by the pupils themselves,—if it were expedient,—with a sufficient degree of accuracy.

The arrangements for the preservation of order are somewhat peculiar. The *Police* of the school consists of a head monitor, a monitor of attendance, a monitor of dictation, and as many sub-monitors as there are sections, each of whom has an assistant. The authority of the three first extends over the whole school; and they are selected to fill their respective places, as marks of distinguished merit. In appointing sub-monitors, no regard is paid to scholarship, but only to ingenuous, amiable, and lady-like deportment. All these monitors hold their places for a quarter. Through the agency of the monitors, the government is vested in a set of books; and so efficient is this system, that the presence of the instructor is scarcely necessary for the preservation of order. No instance of punishment has yet occurred; and but very few individuals have ever been spoken to by the principal of the school, for any improper conduct. The *monitors*, as such, have nothing to

do with the instruction of the school. Each sub-monitor has 'the superintendence of the section next below her.'

The *teachers* are selected solely with reference to their attainments in the several studies, in which they are to give instruction; and retain their respective classes, as long as it may be found expedient and proper. No teacher hears the same section in two different studies; and no one is required to hear a class, while her own class is reciting. The scholars are very watchful to detect the errors of their teachers and of each other: this secures their undivided attention to the exercise before them, makes the teacher careful in the discharge of her duty, and brings to her assistance all the knowledge of her class.

To prevent any disorder or delay, while the classes are at their recitations, each section has a messenger, through whom all communications, to and from the instructor, are made. The *messengers* are the highest scholars in their respective sections. To illustrate the nature of their duties, suppose a scholar does not give a prompt and satisfactory answer to a question proposed; her teacher says '*check!*' Should she not acquiesce in this decision, her answer is '*appeal!*' The messenger then brings the case before the instructor for his consideration, stating all the circumstances, except the name of the individual. This is done in writing, when it can be without too much delay.

The following miscellaneous items of information will be found not unworthy of attention.

Unfortunately the arrangements of the rooms are such that but half of the scholars can conveniently recite at a time.—Particular attention is paid however to the comfort of the scholars: they change their position from standing to sitting, every 15 or 20 minutes.

The attendance on the school is excellent—the scholars being seldom or never absent, but in cases of sickness, even in bad weather. On visiting the school on one of

the late very rainy days, hardly any places were found vacant. This circumstance says more than could be written in many pages, on the pleasure which the young derive from the new method of instruction.

When a new branch of study is introduced, the teacher instructs personally, until some of the scholars are qualified to become teachers in it.—The inductive method is used, whenever it can be successfully employed.—By adopting oral instruction no change of books for the monitorial method has been found necessary.

Every scholar *reviews*, in presence of her instructor, every thing she studies. The books of the school are divided into stages; and before a class passes to a new stage, their teacher requests the instructor himself to ascertain if they are qualified,—which is done by such a review.—Scholars are encouraged in using their own language, instead of that of their books.]*

Boston Monitorial School for Boys.

[The teacher's intention is to furnish a school for boys, corresponding to that of Mr. Fowle's for girls. It is a private undertaking; but, for the time it has existed, it has been patronised to a very encouraging extent. Much satisfaction is expressed by parents and others who have visited the school. But the following account, with which Mr. Price the instructor has favored us, will best speak for this promising seminary.]

The pupils are divided, for most of the branches, into five classes. The branches at present pursued in the school are, Reading, Writing, Spelling, Arithmetic, Geography,

* Several points in the method of instruction adopted in this school, are equally peculiar and interesting. We regret our want of room for a fuller account than is now presented: and would express a hope that the instructor himself will do more adequate justice to the subject, by furnishing the public with a more complete statement of his system, embracing its application in detail. Such a publication would, we think, be serviceable to the progress of improvement in education. *Ed.*

and English Grammar. The scholars were found so deficient in the very elements of knowledge, as to render it necessary to begin with them anew. It is the intention of the instructor, however, to advance them to the studies of our best seminaries.

The exercises are commenced by reading a short portion of scripture, and devotions, in which each scholar unites with the instructor.

While the larger scholars are reading in the First Class Book, Popular Lessons, &c., the younger are reciting at a revolving alphabet wheel, so constructed that only one letter is presented to the view at once. The scholars are encouraged to be critical in their corrections of each other, and to refer every doubtful case to the instructor. To prevent confusion, a slate is fastened to the front of the desk, on which the scholar writes a short account of the dispute, containing all the particulars except the names of those concerned in it. This gives frequent opportunity to correct their spelling and grammar, and it confers ease in committing their thoughts to writing. In some questions on pronunciation, the criticism has been extremely minute and accurate. The scholars sometimes read all together, after the instructor; regarding only distinctness and clearness of articulation.

In spelling we have three methods. One to sound the letters without pronouncing the word; another to pronounce and spell the word after the instructor; the other, to their monitors at their stations.

For writing, every boy is provided with a slate on which he writes words from his spelling lesson for the day, until he can form a tolerable letter, sit, and hold his pencil with propriety; he is then advanced to a writing book. But I consider the common method of placing upon paper the first rude attempts of a scholar, as worse than useless. It operates as a discouragement to future efforts. While writing upon a slate, the boy feels perfect confidence; for if

he should fail in the first trial, he can erase his defect, and begin again. But no such alternative presents itself on paper: if he attempts to hide his error he makes it worse.

In Arithmetic, two methods are employed. One with the use of the slate, the other mental. In the former case, the class put down upon the slate the sum which the monitor dictates, and immediately show slates. The pupil who showed first, if his performance is correct, is advanced to the head of his class. The rapidity with which some boys will make figures, and perform operations in arithmetic, is astonishing. In mental arithmetic we use Fowle's and Colburn's systems. The operations are performed with marbles. So interested are the scholars in this exercise, which I consider among our most useful, that they are very reluctantly called away from it.

In Geography, the scholars themselves provide some parts of their apparatus. Once, after a request from the instructor on this point, an amusing scene was presented. One brought, to represent the earth, an apple with a pencil passed through it for the axis. Another, (not quite so refined,) a potato. A third, a wooden ball, which soon supplanted all the rest. The instructor places himself in the situation of a pupil; and instead of the scholars being only listeners, they are the lecturers, subject only to his occasional interruption.

We have an exercise in Geometry which is very interesting. To induce the pupils to think before they speak, the questions are asked in such a manner as would naturally lead them to an erroneous answer. But so careful have they become, that not only in this but in other branches, they will cautiously revolve the question in their minds before they answer, so as to discover if there is any error designed or unintentional in the question. The youngest children will acquire a knowledge of regular bodies with perfect ease.

We have less vacation than most schools. The recess

on Thursday afternoon has been given up; and innocent and healthful excursions into the neighboring towns, have been substituted. It is in these '*rural walks*' that the natural sciences may be practically taught, and facts in our country's history illustrated on the spot where they occurred. But, chiefly, they are useful, as they present the best season for moral lessons. Every instructor must have experienced the discouragement of seeing his pupil fall into the very offence, against which he had most frequently lectured. The fact is, his instruction was ill-timed. When the children, unrestrained, give way to their several dispositions, he has it in his power to check, at the time, the act which is about to be committed. For instance: many boys who would scorn to pilfer, would think it no harm to take an apple from a neighbor's tree. In this case, how powerful would an admonition come, at the moment of transgression. These excursions, and indeed having any regular exercises on Thursday afternoon, are peculiarly beneficial. The parents are relieved from much anxiety. The limbs are safe, the raiment not in danger, and the morals strictly guarded.* We have visited Bunker Hill, where the battle, and some of the leading facts connected with our revolution, were related to the pupils; and the most eager attention to the narrative manifested the vast superiority of oral instruction in history, given on the spot rendered sacred by the deeds of patriotic valor.

Anecdotes are frequently *related* to the boys. This method is adopted as preferable to reading, and as alone possessing that living interest, which, to the young, gives narrative its grand charm.

Besides the excursions before described, we have regular gymnastic exercise every day. Sufficient provision has

* Our practice is to come together at the usual hour in the afternoon, to hear an exercise in declamation, and then proceed on our excursion. Any scholar is excused at the request of the parent to attend a school for dancing, or a school for any other branch of education.

been made for this exercise, for the present; but it will be improved and extended as soon as circumstances shall render it necessary.

The intervals between the school exercises, are filled up by a recitation of the tables in a manner which is peculiar to this school, and prepares the scholars for the department of fractions, as well as for intellectual arithmetic generally.

[Mr. Price mentions with much approbation the High School of Providence, under the charge of Mr. G. A. Dewitt, which is in a very flourishing condition. From the method of Mr. Dewitt many valuable ideas have been derived by Mr. Price.

An account of the Providence High School was expected for this manual, but has not been received—owing, it is believed, to the absence of the instructor.]

Lancasterian School, New-Haven.

[In New-Haven, Connecticut, a flourishing school has been taught for several years, by Mr John Lovell, a pupil of Joseph Lancaster.

Governor Wolcott, in his message to the Legislature of Connecticut, May, 1825, has the following paragraphs in which allusion is made to this school.]

Happily the system of Monitorial or Lancasterian schools comes to our aid at a time, when, I trust, we are prepared to receive it. It has been sufficiently adopted in this country, to enable every well informed person to judge of its tendencies and principles. It is well known, that it has effected a highly beneficial change in the habits, character, and intelligence, of the youth of New Haven. Those who have passed through a regular course, are well educated young men, prepared to enter on the duties of active life. This system is diffusing over the city of New York, where it affords indisputable evidence of its benefi-

cial effects, training youth to a love of order and virtue, inspiring their minds with self-regard, religious and moral sentiments, industry, justice, and a reverence for the laws; repressing juvenile errors, and preparing the mass of population, in a scene where lately great dangers existed, to support those pure manners and correct principles, upon which the conservation of republican governments must, in a few years, entirely depend.

If funds can be obtained to defray the expenses of the necessary preparations, I have no doubt, that schools, on the Lancasterian model, ought as soon as possible to be established in several parts of this state. The buildings should be constructed, by our architects, of permanent materials; such plans, as experience has recommended, can be readily obtained from New-York;—instructors are constantly forming; and wherever, from two hundred to one thousand children can be convened within a suitable distance, this mode of instruction, in every branch of reading, speaking, penmanship, arithmetic, and book-keeping, will be found much more efficient, direct, and economical, than the practices now generally pursued in our primary schools. These branches of knowledge, in themselves, constitute a good education, and it is their great recommendation, that the Lancasterian modes can be readily conformed to our principles, habits, and present usages.

[The following is the report of the visiting committee of the present year.]

The visiting committee of the New-Haven School Society, are happy to express the renewed gratification with which they have attended the quarterly examination of the Lancasterian School.

The number of scholars belonging to the school during the last quarter, is 250, showing an increase of at least 100 within the last six months. While this increase testifies to the progress of the institution in the good opinion of the public, it gives us pleasure to express our conviction that,

at no former examination which we have witnessed, have the pupils given so decided evidence of improvement in the various branches of study or of complete subordination and regularity. Our confidence in the excellence of the plan on which the school is established was never firmer than at this moment.

We have been particularly pleased with the examinations in the higher departments of common school education. It has been commonly objected to the monitorial system of instruction, that, while it does well for reading and spelling, it is inapplicable to higher studies. This opinion no man can retain after hearing the examination of the classes of this school in English Grammar, in Geography, and in Arithmetic. The pupils, generally, show a complete familiarity with the subjects on which they are examined—a familiarity which results partly from the habits of close attention which this system requires and creates, and partly from the constant reviewing of the classes, which this system alone can secure.

The Principal of the School, to whose industry and enterprise no less than to the excellence of the method, the public are indebted for the prosperity of the institution, has lately been attempting to combine the inductive system with the monitorial. The success of the experiment we were gratified to witness in the readiness with which a considerable class of the youngest boys in school answered to the questions of their monitor in the rudiments of Arithmetic.

We trust that if the method with which Mr Lovell has been making this experiment can be perfected and generally adopted, it will be no longer supposed that there is any peculiar mystery about numbers, or that children may not learn arithmetic as easily as they learn to spell.

These general remarks of commendation cannot, of course, be applicable to every individual scholar; but we believe the system of instruction adopted in this school

better designed than any other to promote the great ends of education—the acquisition of knowledge, and what is still more important to the youthful mind, the formation, in the pupils, of habits of regularity, of method, and of constant and fixed attention. We, therefore, most cheerfully recommend this school to the continued patronage of the public. Such is our confidence in the superior benefit resulting from the monitorial mode of teaching, that we cannot conclude without expressing a hope that, in the course of a few years at most, a similar institution will be established in this city for the instruction of small girls.

Benjamin M. Hill, Leonard Bacon, Charles Hooker, Ebenezer Seeley,—*Visiting Committee.*

Lancaster School, Albany.

[In Albany, New York, there has been, for several years, an extensive and justly celebrated school on Lancaster's plan. We present to our readers the last annual report.]

At an annual meeting of the members of the Albany Lancaster School Society, held at the capitol in the city of Albany on the 6th day of Feb. 1826—Samuel M. Hopkins was chosen chairman, and Benjamin F. Butler, secretary.

The trustees made the following report to the society, which was read and ordered to be printed.

The trustees of the Albany Lancaster School Society, in conformity to the requirements of their act of incorporation, make their annual report as follows :

From the report of the teacher, it appears that the school has been well attended for the past year, and that the progress of the scholars has never been greater, owing in part to their less fluctuating attendance. The number of scholars that have received instruction during the year until the 6th of December last, is 743, and the number now on the class lists is 401, the average number daily attending is from 300 to 350 ; 58 cipher in books, and enter a portion of their calculations. Some of them have been

through Daboll's Arithmetic ; 92 cipher on the Lancasterian cards, and 117 write on ruled books ; 15 boys and 10 girls are studying English grammar, and the rules of reading, and all who are disposed for it, study geography.

The visiting committee who have from time to time visited the school, inspected its discipline, caused the scholars to go through examinations, and perform their several exercises, believe, that in propriety of reading, in penmanship, and in the neatness of their writing and ciphering books, in reciting compositions committed to memory, and in the rapid progress made in these acquirements, few common schools, perhaps none, can produce evidence of equal proficiency. Particular attention is paid to cleanliness and decency of appearance among the scholars; so that those who belong to the class, properly denominated charity scholars, shall not form a contrast in appearance to the pay scholars ; that is the children of those who are not dependent, and who duly appreciating the superior advantages of this school, desire to give their children the benefit of it, and pay a moderate sum for their tuition.

Independently of the illustration of facts by experience, the superiority of the Lancasterian over the common school system of education, may be conclusively inferred from a comparison of the discipline by which they are respectively conducted. In a common school of a moderate number of scholars, while the teacher attends to the recitation of one class, all the rest are left without superintendence, and may, according to the natural disposition of children, spend their time in play and idleness; but this is impossible in a Lancasterian school—whether it consists of one hundred or one thousand scholars, its strict discipline, the total banishment of play and idleness, and consequently its unintermitted course of instruction, are uniformly and perfectly maintained.

The Lancasterian system is an imitation of the military. Its scholars are divided into classes corresponding to the

platoons of a regiment. At the head of each class is placed a monitor or subaltern, selected from the scholars, answering to a non-commissioned officer at the head of a platoon, whose business it is to drill it into a perfect knowledge of the exercises of a soldier, and who will not permit the least inattention to his instructions—so each monitor in the school keeps his class in unceasing exercise, and thus all inattention and idleness are completely prevented. This discipline, it may be observed, conduces also powerfully to alacrity in children to pursue their studies, to an ambition for excelling, and to a cheerfulness in acting their respective parts. Hence their superior, rapid attainments. This undeniable fact, their superior, rapid attainments, must strike every impartial examiner with the most powerful conviction of its truth, and can leave no room for hesitating to decide on the comparative merits of the two systems of education.

Although this school was primarily and chiefly intended for the education of the children of families too straightened in their circumstances to pay for it, and who will always be admitted into it gratis, yet it is not to be considered as a mere charity school. It is open to all who can justly appreciate its advantages, and who will pay the moderate prices that will be apportioned to their respective abilities, or their expressed willingness to pay.

On these grounds, the trustees of the Albany Lancaster School Society, invite all who wish to give their children a common school education to participate in the advantages offered by this. From those who confess their inability to pay any thing, nothing will be demanded; from those who are more able something will be expected, and that will be but a trifling amount compared with the value of the purchase. In justice to the teacher, it is to be observed, that he continues in the discharge of his duties to manifest those talents and that fidelity and regard for the welfare of the institution which have distinguished him, since he first took charge of the school.

The Treasurer's accounts for the last year show a debit of \$1537 93, and a credit of \$1210 34, leaving a balance in his hand, in favor of the society of \$327 11. Among the debited items are \$54 46, the balance of the preceding year, and \$241 44 for tuition money received during the past year. Simeon De Witt, Pres't.—Lewis C. Breck, Sec'ry. Albany, Feb. 6, 1826.

In various parts of the country there are schools on the monitorial plan from which the compiler of this volume has received no direct intelligence but are highly spoken of by persons who have had an opportunity of examining them.

The specimens, however, which have been given, will, it is thought, be sufficient to demonstrate that the system of monitorial instruction has passed the stage of argument, and is already in successful operation; that it is peculiarly adapted to the spirit of American institutions, and more conducive to the diffusion of intelligence, than any which the progress of improvement has yet brought to light.

Part of the manual now presented to the public is designed for common schools; but, in compiling the appendix it seemed desirable to collect such matter as might serve to show that the benefits of monitorial instruction are not restricted to those schools, and will not terminate with the period of life devoted to them, but will form, if necessary, an excellent course of preparation for the discipline of higher seminaries, to which the new method is equally well adapted, and in which it is now extensively introduced.

MUTUAL INSTRUCTION IN COLLEGES.

The monitorial system has been so successful in other institutions as to authorise the suggestion of its being adopted in the higher seminaries of learning; and an attempt will now be made to state its application to college education, as partly introduced in the university of Glasgow, and as practicable, with peculiar prospects of success, in similar institutions in this country.

The idea that mutual instruction can be successfully introduced in *colleges*, may be startling to some readers, who have been accustomed to regard that method as only a very good 'shift' for the poorer classes, and for primary education. But it can occasion no surprise to persons who have had opportunity of observing the operation and the results of that system,—to those who have seen that it has a more direct and immediate influence on the mental habits than any other method, that it rouses the mind to more activity, exercises it more on practical subjects, makes more demands for a ready recollection of what is learned, prepares pupils for efficient cooperation with their teacher, in the benevolent work of communicating knowledge, and converts the whole course of education into a scene of pure and active enjoyment. That all these highly desirable results are really attendant on mutual instruction, is put beyond the reach of discussion. This point will need no urging to those who have access to any monitorial school, or to those who have read, with a candid attention, the recent publications on this subject.

Every intelligent person in this country has, or may have, opportunity of demonstration, or of credible testimony, on this point; and to enter into discussion about it, would be idle. We shall confine ourselves, therefore, to a brief consideration of the *advantages* likely to result from a more extensive introduction of monitorial teaching in colleges. We say a *more extensive* introduction, for the system is already in use. Every college which employs tutors in instructing its classes, adopts the practice of monitorial tuition; for tutors are no other than monitors—the intermediate link between the professor and the student. In adopting fully the details of the monitorial plan, therefore, there would be no upturning of previous arrangements, but simply an enlargement of them. The office of tutor would, in this case, correspond to that of general or superintending monitor, in seminaries on the new plan.

Some of the more obvious advantages of the proposed arrangement would be,

1. As regards the *students*—more *simple, intelligible and practical, instruction*. Knowledge conveyed through the medium of a book alone, is comparatively obscure, dry, and uninteresting. The case of an individual learner with all its peculiar difficulties, requiring explanation and assistance, cannot come within the range of such instruction. The student has a volume put into his hands which it is presumed he understands perfectly, or in which he needs but little direction, beyond what its own pages furnish; and the distance existing between students and their tutor, as well as an aversion to appear in the attitude of asking or of needing information, commonly prevents recourse to the aid of the tutor. The result therefore is, usually, a mechanical recitation from the book on the part of the student, and a mechanical act of listening on that of the tutor; a mutual shyness and reserve presenting a complete barrier to the interchange of thought between the teacher and the taught. This dull and lifeless and unprofitable routine, will be at once changed for action, and animated and instructive conversation; if tuition is made to come from an equal, or, at least, from one who has no distinction but that of superior intelligence in the subject which is taught. And the free discussion authorised by this arrangement, is one of the greatest benefits both to the class and to their acting instructor, which the new system affords.* Instruction received and imparted in this way, can never become—as is too much the case on the common plan—a mere succession of isolated ideas: it becomes incorporated with the mind of the student, and has an influence on all his mental habits.

2. Mutual instruction would produce *more attentive and*

* See the observations of professor Pillans already quoted in this Appendix.

diligent application on the part of the students. A mere thirst for knowledge, an ambition to excel, or even a deep impression of the value of education, will not prove so keen an incitement to diligence, as the knowledge of the fact that the student himself is to be called to communicate to others the instruction which he is receiving, and to communicate it to an audience who are at liberty to question every step of his progress, and draw out all the resources of his mind, and all the fruits of his labor, under no other ultimate control than an appeal to the decision of the principal instructor. But it is not the monitor only whose mind is thus improved: the whole class or division is naturally inspired with a resolution not to be behind their monitor, but on the contrary to come prepared to meet him if possible, on equal ground, and perhaps to surpass him, or even to reverse his decision, by an ingenious appeal to the presiding instructor. There is no danger that in such circumstances students who are susceptible of any generous and honorable impulse will flag in their efforts. Nor will any confusion or impropriety result from this familiar method of managing recitations, if there is only a reasonable attention on the part of the superintending teacher. His presence, too, will be invested with more authority, and will command a deeper influence; as it is in fact elevated in the scale of consideration, from being removed one step higher, by the intermediate agency of the monitor.

3. The use of the monitorial method would enable students to *accomplish more*, within the space assigned to college education. One of the chief advantages of the new system is the multiplying of instructors. A large class is subdivided into many small sections, each provided with a monitor. This arrangement classifies the students better as to their age and capacity. No individual is pushed on faster than is advantageous to him; and none is compelled to wait for others who are naturally more tardy, or who

are less thoroughly prepared to advance. There is thus a sufficient scope to ambition, without any danger of a hasty and superficial application. Every student receives more of personal attention and assistance, than on the common plan. There is no limit to industry and to acquisition, but natural capacity, and a prudent attention to health; and on the other hand nothing is left neglected by an attempt to hurry on, so as to keep up with a class. whether an individual is qualified or not. More, therefore, is actually accomplished in both cases.

4. Mutual instruction would form, to better advantage, the *mental habits* of students. In the prevailing methods of instruction, there is too much of mere sedentary seclusion imposed on the student, too much of abstract contemplation, of a mere passive reception of ideas, of a purely negative discipline. Action and impulse are wanted in the formation of intellectual character: positive qualities are the main springs of life. There are but few occasions in actual business in which the habits of retirement and mental absorption, are of much value.

If education is nothing else than a course of instruction and discipline preparatory to the business of life, it should not stop short at intellectual acquirements, it should embrace a course of active training adapted as exactly as possible to the exigencies of future avocations.* But, as the case now stands in most colleges, the grand object seems to be merely to furnish the student's mind with the materials which he is afterwards to use. Intuitive perception, and the pressure of circumstances, it seems to be taken for granted, will teach him how to apply what he has acquired. The question may be safely put to most of the active and the distinguished individuals who are now on the stage of life, whether the habits which are most valua-

* See, for a full and able statement of this point, professor Jardine's *Outlines of Philosophical Education*.

ble to them, are not those for which a collegiate course had made little or no provision, and for which these individuals were indebted to vigorous personal discipline, after leaving the studies of college.

A great part of such practical training might be easily accomplished in the college course, and ought, in fact, to form a large proportion of college exercises. The student would then be able to meet the demands of circumstances in professional pursuits; with the advantage of a good degree of preparation, and might advance with greatly increased rapidity and success, in the business of personal and professional improvement. The monitorial method supplies a wide field for exercise of that kind which harmonises with the habits of business: it gives the student readiness in the arrangement of thought, and facility in expression, by affording him frequent opportunities for communicating his ideas without the formality or restraint of set composition. His duties as monitor require a perfect familiarity with the subject on which he imparts instruction—a thorough knowledge of the connection and dependence of its various parts—a fluency in statement and illustration—and a readiness in answering unexpected questions, and solving unforeseen difficulties. Monitorial instruction cultivates also a manly command of temper, and the exercise of a firm but mild control in discharging the duties of office;—advantages which can never be enjoyed on the common plan of education.

5. The benefits of the system of mutual instruction are not confined, however, to the improvement of the student: they extend, with full effect, to the department of the *instructor*. The number of tutors or monitors being greatly increased, the aids to instruction would be multiplied, and an adequate discharge of duty would be vastly facilitated. The burden of mechanical detail would be removed from the tutors and the professors: general superintendence and instruction in the higher departments only, would be

all that would be required of the permanent instructors; who would thus be left free to push their own researches, and aid the progress of their students more effectually, in the higher departments of science and literature.* This result would be not less beneficial to the interests of the colleges, than advantageous to the reputation of the professors.

6. There are also some considerations of a general nature, which are equally entitled to attention in estimating the benefits of the new method. Of these one is *the diminution of the expenses of education*. Tutors on the present arrangement are supported on salaries which, though by no means extravagant, amount, in every college to a very considerable sum. On the monitorial plan, the office of tutor or superintending monitor, would devolve, in rotation, on all students who were found sufficiently qualified; and the furnishing of the requisite qualifications is strictly a part of the improved system. If tutors were provided in this way, one of two courses might be adopted. The reward of official service might be made to consist in the honor attached to it; or, if compensation of a pecuniary nature were thought eligible, the benefit would necessarily be co-extensive with the degree of application and of merit, necessary to constitute the qualifications of a tutor. Such an arrangement might afford much assistance to young men desirous of enjoying the best opportunities of education, but not furnished to a desirable extent, with the means of procuring them.

7. Mutual instruction, if incorporated with the collegiate course, might aid essentially the progress of *improvement in education*, and might be rendered extensively beneficial to *the interests of society*. It is one of the most impor-

* The present imperfect state of preparatory education, and the want of mutual instruction in Colleges, often make it necessary for the professor to spend much time and labor on the elements of his department;—a circumstance which tends greatly to depress the standard of literary attainment and character.

tant advantages of this system, that it produces within itself a succession of accomplished instructors, furnished with experience and skill, acquired in the course of their own education, and ready to be applied even to their first efforts in teaching, when adopted as a business. It would be useless here to remind our readers of the scanty qualifications with which it has hitherto been customary to set up for the office of teacher, or to enlarge on the amount of national benefit likely to result from the services of instructors possessed at once of the highest literary and scientific acquirements, and of the best attainable qualifications for the business of teaching. One advantage, however, more immediately connected with the application of mutual instruction to the course of education embraced in colleges, is worthy of a separate attention. In many flourishing institutions professors may be found possessed of high qualifications as to scholarship or acquirements, but who are not very successful in the great business of their office,—the imparting of instruction. This disadvantage is a serious one; and, for the present, it is without remedy, unless young men can be furnished with proper opportunities for acquiring skill in the business of teaching, before they are called to discharge the duties of tutors and professors.

To point out particulars in the *method of applying monitorial instruction in colleges*, will hardly be necessary, after the minute details given in stating the application of the system to schools. Little variation will be required in transferring the arrangements from schools to colleges.

Perhaps it might be found preferable, however, to abolish entirely a prescribed course for given years of progress. No limits ought to be assigned to the advancement of classes. Their progress should be regulated by their proficiency to any extent. Nor would this increase the labors of the teacher. All he would need to do would be to precede and personally instruct the most advanced division of his class;

—this division imparting to the others the instruction which was received from the professor: this would be done under the superintendence of the professor, and as fast as the other divisions could advantageously follow. Or, if the distinction of classes by different years of a course, should still be preserved, the most advanced division of the senior class might be employed as monitors for the other divisions of their own class, during one part of the day, and as superintending monitors for the other classes, during another part of the day; while every class furnished acting or superintending monitors for the one immediately succeeding it, in the order of admission.

The mind of the student would thus, through the whole course of study, be brought more immediately under the guidance of the professor; as by the monitorial method the professor's own views of his particular branch, and his method of teaching in it, would be faithfully transmitted to the youngest or the most recently admitted of his students. At the same time, the students would reap the benefit of four years actual or virtual tuition from the professor; as, on the plan suggested, all the classes would fall under the professor's superintendence in the particular branch which the arrangements of the college course assigned to his care. The deficiencies of early and preparatory instruction would thus be better made up, than now; and the benefit of a professor's instruction and influence would attend the student, from his first entrance on his college studies.—That the results actually obtained in this way, would be greater than they are on the common plan, no impartial person, we think, will be disposed to question.

Many subordinate means of improvement would, on this plan, be more accessible than now. Take the department of private reading, for instance. To peruse every good author on any one subject, would consume more time than the arrangements of college life can afford. But the monitorial method, if properly introduced, would put every stu-

dent in possession of all the valuable information contained in every volume which it might be desirable to read as auxiliary to college instruction. This result might be obtained in the following or in any similar way. Let a given author be assigned to each member of a division, to be carefully perused within a certain time. At the end of this time, let the division assemble in presence of the professor; and let each student give a written or oral abstract of the contents of the author which was assigned to him; entering particularly into those parts of the volume which contain the author's peculiar views on the subject. Let the whole division listen, or if thought preferable let them take notes, while the abstract is read. The professor might, as the student proceeds with his account, fill up any omission, or correct any error, which is made. An oral explanatory examination might then take place, embracing the whole division, in a review of the abstract. As many authors might be discussed as the hour would permit. The great practical value of such exercises will at once present itself to intelligent minds.*

The following extract from Professor Jardine will serve to show the practicability and the value of monitorial instruction in colleges: it relates to the method adopted in examining and appreciating themes, in the First Philosophy Class of the University of Glasgow.

'This regular method of appreciating the merits of themes, in a class of philosophy, has not been much followed; and it may perhaps appear still more novel and hazardous to commit the determination of the merits of the themes to the students themselves. Yet according to the plan of conducting the business, this method is absolutely necessary. With all the time and attention the teacher can bestow on so numerous a class, (nearly two hundred,) and with all the expedition acquired by long practice, he

* For fuller details see Jardine's *Outlines of Philosophical Education*.

cannot possibly accomplish the examination of all the themes; and yet, unless they are all regularly examined and brought into public notice, the attention of those students whose exercises are overlooked, will soon become relaxed, their spirits depressed, and their feelings irritated. If our essays pass without notice, they naturally ask, why need we give ourselves so much trouble in composing them? The whole of the themes, therefore, must be examined, or the plan must be given up.'

'This situation has suggested a method of review of which much use is made in the logic (or philosophy) class, and which not only removes that objection, but brings with it incalculable advantages which cannot be obtained in any other way. When the themes are ready for examination, the professor makes choice of ten or twelve students, most distinguished by their abilities and progress; and to them are committed the review of such themes as he cannot himself overtake. These are, in the language of the class, called examiners, a less assuming title than that of critics or censors: to each of them a certain number of themes is committed, for which of course they are accountable, and which they are required to read over carefully, to examine in every part, that they may be able to appreciate their merits, and to give in a report in the form of a written criticism attached to the theme, and signed by the examiner.

'This mode of appreciating the merit of themes, in a philosophy class, may appear unsatisfactory or objectionable; but experience has sufficiently shown, that many advantages are derived from it. It has always happened, I believe, in most public schools, that the more advanced students, in some way or other, have given assistance to inferior scholars. This method was practised here, long before the names of Lancaster or Bell were known to the public. The management of such assistance is no doubt somewhat delicate; and the advantages connected with it,

depend a little upon the experience and prudence of the teacher. Were not the examiners subject to strict discipline and control, the practice, so far from being useful, might be extremely pernicious. Ignorance, conceit, partiality, and petulance on the part of these juvenile assistants, might give occasion to disappointments, chagrin, and irritation, in the minds of such as conceived that their exercises had been unjustly criticised. *But with the precautions that are taken, these disagreeable effects are altogether prevented.* The examiners are publicly and solemnly appointed to their office, which is considered as highly honorable; and before they enter upon it, they are formally bound to discharge it according to the instructions which they receive, from which they are made to understand that there must be no deviation whatever.

‘To give full effect to this method of discipline, one step farther has been found necessary. Among so many spirited, industrious young men, it may be expected that the author of the theorem is not always satisfied with the judgement of his examiner; and he may perhaps be suspicious of ignorance, or misrepresentation, in the criticism. The more the author is conscious of ability and industry exerted in the composition, the more apt will he be to question any fault which has been found. To remove, therefore, every ground of misunderstanding, and to give encouragement to farther exertions of ingenuity or industry, the work of criticism is continued. The author of the theme is allowed to peruse the criticism, and to return it to the professor with such explanatory remarks as he may think necessary; and on certain more important points, this warfare is carried one step further. But the professor takes the first opportunity of putting an end to the controversy, by interposing his own judgement, to which the parties cheerfully submit. During this not unfrequently amusing conflict, new lights and prospects are discovered, which often conduct these juvenile critics to topics beyond their original contemplations.’

‘The utility and efficacy of the rules by which these themes are conducted, have been demonstrated by long experience. *Not* half a dozen cases have occurred for these last fifty years, in which it became necessary to inflict censure for improper discharge of this duty. Mistaken as the examiners must often be, in their remarks, they almost always express their opinion, such as it is, in modest and inoffensive terms. When any important difference has occurred between the author and the examiner, the professor has ever found it easy to settle it to their mutual satisfaction. Young persons will always prove docile and reasonable, when they feel that they are treated with candor, with kindness, and without any undue partialities. Esteem and confidence open the minds of ingenuous youth, and keep alive a sense of obligation and of duty; at least this has always accorded with my experience.

‘Finally, the method of conducting the themes and criticisms of the first philosophy class, is highly beneficial, both to the authors and examiners; and has been found, from experience, an excellent expedient for calling forth the intellectual energies of the student. There are few situations in which young men can be placed more favorable to application and industry. Their interest and honor combine, with the exhortations of the teacher in disposing them to an animated discharge of their duty. The authors of the themes compose them under the impression of their being subject to a strict review; the examiners employ their utmost efforts to discover imperfections and defects; and the teacher himself must acknowledge, that, by thus watching over and directing this intercourse between his students, he has derived much experimental instruction in the proper manner of conducting the business of education.’

It may be worth while to add that in the Greek and Latin classes of Glasgow college, (the former under the care of professor Young, and the latter under that of professor Richardson,) the system of mutual instruction was virtually adopted in their methods of conducting recitations and of preparing for them. In the higher and harder authors, the professors themselves would give the 'prelection', or initiatory reading; but in authors of an easier class, the more diligent and competent students of the senior year were employed in prelection. If an error occurred in translation or in parsing, another student would be called to correct it, if there was still an error, the passage was put to a third student; and so on, till the correct rendering or parsing was given. Sometimes the professor himself would suggest a happier translation in a given case. While the senior students were reading, the younger class followed the readers mentally as they parsed and construed; the members of this class being expected, with the aid of proper diligence at home, to come prepared on the following day, to recite the same lesson.

The professor of Greek sometimes adopted a similar method with the elements of that language, and with the subject of prosody; the more advanced students undergoing an exercise in review, and the younger receiving instruction and explanation, on the lesson of the following day.

Both of these classes enjoyed for professors, men of high eminence as scholars and instructors; and with neither of them was the method an innovation or a temporary expedient: it was then and still is, in most, if not all, of the colleges of Scotland, the standing method of instruction, which has been found successful for ages; and in which an early attention to practical instruction, had, in fact, anticipated the improvements of a more modern era.

The limits of this Manual will not admit of farther discussion on this subject; and the view now taken of it is too cursory and brief for the merits of the question. Small as this volume is, however, the importance of the subject seemed to demand that a view should be taken of the application of the improved system to the whole course of education; as a proper harmony in the methods adopted in the various stages and departments of instruction, is equally essential to their perfection, and to the general progress of improvement.

In the suggestions which have been necessarily interwoven with the application of mutual instruction to colleges, the author would be sorry to be understood as advancing charges of deficiency in those who conduct these institutions in the United States. The present condition of most of the colleges of this country, appears to be highly creditable to those who superintend them. Improvement, however, is, in all cases where it is practicable, a desirable thing; and in the present instance it seems attainable with peculiar ease and certainty, in the way which is indicated by successful experiment. The compiler of this Appendix aims no higher than to aid in attracting attention to this channel of improvement in education,—a subject so important to the best interests of this country.

The following sentiment is from the pen of the enlightened and judicious individual whose name stands so intimately connected with recent improvements in education.*

‘I am not surprised at the increasing zeal for the improvement of education in America. *It* is of all others the country where that was to be expected; and as the people are not fettered and trammelled by the ancient academical institutions of Europe,—many of which are obviously unsuited to the views of modern times,—they have nothing to impede arrangements dictated only by a conviction of what is fit and useful.’

* Professor Jardine.

THE HISTORY OF THE

The history of the world is a vast and complex subject, encompassing the lives of countless individuals and the events that have shaped our planet. From the dawn of time to the present day, the human story is one of constant change and evolution. The early civilizations of Mesopotamia, Egypt, and the Indus Valley laid the foundations for the societies that followed, introducing writing, agriculture, and organized government. The classical era of Greece and Rome saw the birth of democracy, philosophy, and the arts, while the Middle Ages were marked by the rise of Christianity and the Crusades. The Renaissance brought a renewed interest in science and humanism, leading to the scientific revolution and the modern era. The 19th and 20th centuries were characterized by industrialization, world wars, and the Cold War, while the 21st century has seen the rise of globalization and the challenges of climate change. The history of the world is a testament to the resilience and ingenuity of the human spirit, and it is a story that continues to unfold before our eyes.

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The Pronouncing English Reader. The English Reader : or, Pieces in Prose and Poetry, selected from the best writers. Designed to assist young persons to read with propriety and effect ; to improve their language and sentiments ; and to inculcate some of the most important principles of piety and virtue. With a few preliminary observations on the principles of good reading. By Lindley Murray. To which, by the aid of a Key, is scrupulously applied, Mr. Walker's Pronunciation of the Classical Proper names, and of numerous other words, difficult to pronounce. By Israel Alger, Jun. A. M.

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Wait, Greene, and Company have for sale, the following works, (published by A. H. Maltby & Co. New Haven, Conn.)

Adam's Latin Grammar abridged, and arranged in a course of practical lessons, adapted to the capacity of young learners. By WILLIAM RUSSELL. 2d Edition.

This Grammar is designed chiefly for beginners at an early age.—But as it embraces copious explanations and interrogatory exercises, it may be a useful *guide to instructors*. It is also peculiarly adapted to the use of *monitors*, on the system

of mutual instruction. To *young ladies* who study the Latin language it will furnish an intelligible and pleasing view of the matter usually comprehended in Grammars.

Mr. Russell,

Your abridgement of the Latin Grammar, is, in our view, judiciously executed; and, by its simplicity and its numerous illustrations, seems well adapted to the class of learners for whose use it is intended.

J. L. KINGSLEY, Prof. of the Greek and Latin languages.

C. A. GOODRICH, Prof. of Rhetoric and Oratory.

Yale College.

Extracts from a Review in the U. S. Lit. Gazette, for Oct. 1824.

‘Nothing can be more grateful to a reviewer, than to be occasionally released from the necessity of expressing disapprobation and censure, and allowed fair scope for his disposition to applaud a competent and faithful author.’ ‘Mr. Russell has composed a Latin Grammar, in such a manner as to make it intelligible to those who study it.’ ‘Before we saw his book, we were quite familiar with the principles by which he was guided in composing it; but we feared it would be long before we should find an author of sufficient assiduity and skill, to apply them to the study of the Latin language.’

Extract from a notice in the North American Review for Oct. 1824.

‘Simplicity and a clear arrangement are the points chiefly to be kept in view, and in these particulars this abridgement seems to be an improvement on the larger work, and to be well fitted for the young pupil at his first entrance on the study of the Latin language.’

A Grammar of Composition, including a series of Lessons in Rhetorical Analysis, and six introductory courses of Composition.

The first part of this work contains a review of those principles of rhetoric which are more immediately applicable to composition. A few additions and alterations are extracted from Fosbrooke’s Grammar of Rhetoric, and Angus’s English Grammar. The second part prosecutes the plan of analysis adopted by Professor Jardine, in his occasional interrogatory exercises. Part third is a fuller developement of the method observed in Walker’s Teacher’s Assistant.

Brevity has been very rigidly observed in the compilation of this work. The author had no intention of composing a formal Treatise on the subject. His design was merely to furnish a few practical hints, the actual value of which must depend on the diligence of the pupil and the superintendence of the teacher.

Extract from a notice in the North American Review, for Oct. 184.

‘This compend is perspicuous, and particularly designed for academies and schools of the higher order.’

Extract from a letter, addressed to the author, by George Jardine, A. M., Professor of Logic and Belles Lettres in the University of Glasgow, and author of the Outlines of Philosophical Education.

'The Grammar of Composition is a most useful work, and contains a manual of instructions very important to pupils beginning to compose. You have great merit in condensing so many sound practical rules within such a narrow compass.'

Wait, Greene, and Company have in press.

Lessons in Declamation; embracing the more important Rules of Elocution, and the Principles of Gesture.—
By William Russell, Teacher of Elocution, Boston.

This book contains directions for the assistance of teachers, and is also adapted to the use of pupils in schools and academies; it is introductory to a work, designed for colleges and professional institutions, which will speedily be published by the Rev. Dr. Porter, of the Theological Seminary at Andover.

Jardine's Outlines of Philosophical Education.
From the second Glasgow edition, with Additions and other Improvements by the Author.

Extract from a recent letter of the author to the editor of the American Journal of Education, 'It—referring to the second edition of the above work—'contains some additions and, I hope, improvements—in particular, a suggestion of extending the academical course to several branches of knowledge, of great importance; but which are little attended to in the ordinary course of academical education.'

Glasgow College, 12 May, 1826.

GEORGE JARDINE.'

Wait, Greene, and Company, will keep on hand works which are noticed in the American Journal of Education, and books adapted to monitorial instruction,—particularly such as are used in the school taught by Mr. Fowle.

Bibles, Blank Books, and other articles of Stationary, for schools and common use.

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